PUBLIC SCHOOL MANUALS

History

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ONTARIO
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

PUBLIC SCHOOL MANUALS

HISTORY

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NOTE

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THE MINISTER OF EDUCATION FOR ONTARIO

HISTORY

PUBLIC SCHOOL COURSE OF STUDY

(DETAILS)

The course in Literature and Composition includes the telling by the teacher of suitable stories from the Bible; stories of primitive peoples, of child life in other lands, of famous persons and peoples; and the oral reproduction of these stories by the pupils. In this way History, Literature, and Composition are combined.

For Method in telling stories, consult *How to tell Stories to Children*, by Sara Cone Bryant, Houghton, Mifflin Company, Boston, $1.00.

FORM I

BIBLE STORIES:

Moses in the Bulrushes, his Childhood, the Burning Bush, the Crossing of the Red Sea, the Tables of Stone; Joseph's Boyhood Dreams, Joseph sold into Egypt, the Famine, the Visits of his Brethren; David and Goliath; Samson.

STORIES OF CHILD LIFE:

The Eskimo Girl, the Andean Girl, the Arabian Girl, the Swiss Girl, the Chinese Girl, the African Girl, the German Girl, the Canadian Girl.

Consult *The Seven Little Sisters*, by Jane Andrews, Ginn & Co., Boston, 50c.; *The Little Cousin Series*, by Mary Hazelton Wade, L. C. Page & Co., Boston, 60c. each.

SPECIAL DAYS:

Christmas—The Birth of Christ, the first Christmas tree (see Appendix); Arbor Day; Constructive work suggested by St. Valentine's Day and Thanksgiving Day; Stories of these days.

***Note:* Advantage should be taken of every opportunity to teach obedience to authority and respect for the property and rights of others.**

FORM II

BIBLE STORIES:

Abraham and Lot, Joshua, David and Jonathan, David and Saul, Ruth and Naomi, Daniel.

STORIES OF CHILD LIFE:

The Aryan Boy, the Persian Boy, the Greek Boy, the Roman Boy, the Saxon Boy, the Page Boy, the English Boy, the Puritan Boy, the Canadian Boy of to-day.

Consult *Ten little Boys who live on the Road from Long Ago till Now*, by Jane Andrews, Ginn & Co., 50c.

STORIES OF FAMOUS PEOPLE:

Boadicea, Alfred, Harold, First Prince of Wales, Sir Francis Drake, Sir Walter Raleigh, Columbus, Cabot, Cartier, Champlain, Madeline de Vercheres, Pontiac, Brock, Laura Secord.

Consult *The Story of the British People*, Thomas Nelson & Sons.

PIONEER LIFE:

In Ancient Britain: See *Second Reader,* p. 109; *Ontario Public School History of England,* p. 10.
In Roman Britain: See *The Story of the British People,* pp. 18-24.
Old English Life: See *Third Reader,* p. 325; *Ontario High School History of England,* pp. 33-40.
At the Close of the French Period in Canada: See *Fourth Reader,* p. 65.
In Upper Canada in the "Thirties": See *Fourth Reader,* p. 122.

INVENTORS:

Watt, Stephenson, Fulton, Edison, Bell.

CIVICS:

Elementary lessons in local government:
(*a*) In cities, towns, and incorporated villages—the postman, postmaster, and policeman.
(*b*) For rural districts—postmaster, pathmaster, election of trustees.

SPECIAL DAYS:

Empire Day, Victoria Day, Dominion Day; Review of those taken in Form I.

FORM III

GREAT EVENTS OF CURRENT WORLD-HISTORY:

The First Britons; The Coming of the Romans; A Day in Roman Britain; The Coming of the English; The Coming of Christianity; The Vikings; Alfred the Great; Rivals for a Throne; The Coming of the Normans; A Norman Castle; A Glance at Scotland; Henry the Second and Ireland; Richard of the Lion Heart; King John and the Great Charter; The First Prince of Wales; William Wallace; Robert the Bruce; The Black Prince; On French Fields; The Discovery of America; John Cabot and the New World; The Father of the British Navy; Jacques Cartier, the Pilot of St. Malo; The New Worship; Francis Drake, Sea Dog; The Story of two Half-Brothers; The Beginnings of Acadia; The Father of New France; The Pilgrim Fathers; King Charles the First; The Jesuits in Canada; The Rule of Cromwell; The King enjoys his own again; The Story of La Salle; A Turning Point; The Revolution—and After; Frontenac's Return; "The Greatest Soldier of His Time"; "Bonnie Prince Charlie"; Robert Clive, The "Daring in War"; The Conquest of Canada; The Coming of the Loyalists; The Terror of Europe; How

Canada Fought for the Empire; Waterloo; A House Divided; The Great Northwest; Britain in Africa; The Boer War; The Reign of Edward the Seventh.

Read *The Story of the British People*, Thomas Nelson & Sons.

CIVICS:

Review of the work in Form II; election of town or township Council; taxes—the money people pay to keep up schools and roads, etc.; how local taxes are levied for the support of the school; election of members of County Council, of members of Provincial Legislature; duties of citizenship.

FORM IV

I. CANADIAN HISTORY:

Facts about Indians—habits, etc.; The Cabots; Cartier—search for the route to India and its influence on the exploration of America (Road to Cathay); Settlement of Newfoundland; Champlain; Settlement of Acadia by the French—by the English; One Hundred Associates; Jesuit Missions; Frontenac; La Salle; Feudalism in Canada; Queen Anne's War, 1697-1713 (causes and results); Verendrye; British Conquest of New France (fall of Quebec); Conspiracy of Pontiac; Quebec Act, 1774; Canada and the American Revolution; U. E. Loyalists; Constitutional Act, 1791; Struggle for Responsible Government; Early Newspapers in Canada—their influence; Hudson Bay Company; North-West Company; Exploration in Northwest—Hearne, Mackenzie, Frazer, Thompson; War of 1812-1814; Responsible Government achieved—Family Compact; Clergy Reserves, William Lyon Mackenzie, Joseph Howe, Papineau, Durham, Act of Union, 1840; Municipal Government in Canada; Social and Educational Progress before 1867; Settlement of Northwest—Selkirk; Confederation of the Provinces; Expansion of the Dominion by the addition of new provinces; Canadian Pacific Railway; Riel Rebellion, 1885; Disputes between Canada and the United States. Treaties—Paris, 1763 and 1783; Ghent, 1814; Rush-Bagot, 1817; Ashburton, 1842; Oregon, 1846; Reciprocity, 1854; Washington, 1871. Arbitrations—Alabama, San Juan, Alaska, Fisheries; The Hague Tribunal and the Peace Movement.

II. BRITISH HISTORY:

The Early Inhabitants—the Britons; Coming of the Romans; Coming of the Anglo-Saxons; Norman Conquest; William the Conqueror; Feudal System; Frequent wars between England and France—between England and Scotland; Friendship of France and Scotland; Crusades, Richard I (Third Crusade); Magna Charta; The Barons and English liberty; Edward I—quarrel between England and Scotland; Conquest of Wales; First English Parliament; Edward III—Scotland and France; Chaucer, Wyckliff; Henry V; Joan of Arc; Loss of the French provinces—compare with effect of loss of the German provinces under the Georges; Wars of the Roses—results on the growth of liberty; Caxton and Printing; Henry VII—beginning of the Renaissance, Colet, Erasmus, the Cabots; Sir Thomas More; Henry VIII; Wolsey and Cromwell; The Reformation

in England; Queen Elizabeth and Spain—the Armada; Drake, Hawkins, and the New World; Mary, Queen of Scots; Raleigh and Gilbert—Virginia and Newfoundland; Slave trade in America; Literature of Elizabethan era—Marlowe, Jonson, Shakespeare, Spenser, Francis Bacon; Union of English and Scottish crowns, 1603; The Stuarts and Parliament—Wentworth and Laud; The idea of Divine Right of kings; Pilgrim Fathers, 1620; Milton; Long Parliament, 1640; Puritan Revolution and Cromwell; The Restoration; Newton, Bunyan, and Defoe; Habeas Corpus Act, 1679; Revolution of 1688—William of Orange, what this revolution meant; Bill of Rights, 1689; Bank of England established, 1694; Act of Settlement, 1701; Legislative Union with Scotland, 1707; Marlborough and the War of the Spanish Succession; Society and Literature under Anne; South Sea Company (cf. Mississippi Company of Law); Walpole; Rise of the Methodists; Rebellions of 1715 and 1745; Expansion of the Empire; English in India—East India Company, Clive, Hastings, Mutiny, end of the Company; Pitt; Seven Years' War; Industrial Revolution of 1760-1800—Results on Society and Transportation; Prison Reform; Rise of the great English newspapers; American Revolution, 1775-1783—causes and results; French Revolution, 1789—England at war with France; Wellington and Napoleon; Beginning of English railways; Poor Law, 1834; English national education, 1833, 1870; Queen Victoria, 1837; Later events as in text-book.

III. Civics:

Taxation, Federal Government, and Imperial Government.

Review.—Canadian history to be reviewed by associating it with corresponding events in British history.

MANUAL OF SUGGESTIONS FOR TEACHERS OF HISTORY

INTRODUCTION

The lessons presented in this Manual are to be considered as suggestive rather than directive, as types illustrating how the principles of teaching may be applied in a particular subject. Definite knowledge of the materials to be used and of the purpose to be accomplished in teaching a subject determines, in the main, the choice of method. This statement is especially true of History, for, unless it is steadily borne in mind, the temptation is very great to make the teaching of this subject consist in mere memorizing of events and dates.

HISTORY

Purpose.—History may be made, in several ways, an important factor in producing intelligent, patriotic citizens:

(*a*) It must be remembered that society, with all its institutions, is a growth, not a sudden creation. It follows that, if we wish to understand the present and even to guess at what the future may be, we must know the story of how our present institutions and conditions have come to be what they are; we must know the ideals of our forefathers, the means they took to realize them, and to what extent they succeeded. It is only in this way that we become capable of passing judgment, as citizens, on what is proposed by political and social reformers.

(*b*) Patriotism, which depends so largely on the associations formed in childhood, is intensified by learning how our forefathers fought and laboured and suffered to obtain all that we now value most in our homes and social life. The courage with which the early settlers of Upper Canada faced their tremendous labours and hardships should make us appreciate our inheritance in the Ontario of to-day.

(*c*) "History teaches that right and wrong are real distinctions." The study of History, especially in the sphere of biography, has a moral value, and much may be done, even in the primary classes, to inspire children to admire the heroic and the self-sacrificing, and to despise the treacherous and the self-seeking.

(*d*) History affords specially good exercise for the judgment we use in everyday life in weighing evidence and balancing probabilities. Such a question as "Did Champlain do right in taking the side of the Hurons against the Iroquois, or even in taking sides at all?" may be suggested to the older pupils for consideration.

(*e*) The imagination is exercised in the effort to recall or reconstruct the scenes of the past and in discovering relations of cause and effect.

(*f*) The memory is aided and stimulated by the increase in the number of the centres of interest round which facts, both new and old, may be grouped.

(*g*) A knowledge of the facts and inferences of history is invaluable for general reading and culture.

To sum up: It is important that the good citizen should know his physical environment; it is just as important for him "to know his social and political environment, to have some appreciation of the nature of the state and society,

some sense of the duties and responsibilities of citizenship, some capacity in dealing with political and governmental questions, something of the broad and tolerant spirit which is bred by the study of past times and conditions."

Scope.— The ideal course in History would include a general view of the history of the world, giving the pupil knowledge enough to provide the proper setting for the history of his own country; a more detailed knowledge of the whole history of his own country; and a special knowledge of certain outstanding periods or tendencies in that history. In our schools, we should give most attention to the study of Canadian and British history as a whole, to enough of the history of France and of other countries to make clear certain parts of our own history, and to certain important periods, such as the settlement of Upper Canada by the United Empire Loyalists, etc. (See Detailed Course of Study, p. 5.) We may also study our History along special lines of development—political, military, social, educational, religious, industrial, and commercial—but this will be rather the work of the secondary schools and colleges.

Stages of Study.—There are three stages in the study of History which, though they overlap each other, yet indicate different methods of treatment for pupils at different ages. They are the Story stage, the Information stage, and the Reflective stage. These stages are not exclusive, nor do they coincide with the first three Forms in the schools.

1. *The Story Stage* is suitable for children in the primary Forms and is chiefly preparatory to the real study of History in the higher Forms. The need for this stage lies in the fact that the child's "ideas are of the pictorial rather than of the abstract order"; yet his spontaneous interest in these things must be made to serve "as a stepping-stone to the acquired interests of civilized life." The definite objects at this stage are:

(*a*) To acquaint the pupils with some of the important historical persons. We wish to take advantage of the fact that "the primitive form of attention which is captured at once by objects that strike the senses is giving place in some degree to appreciative attention, which is yielded to things that connect themselves with what we already know, and which implies ability to adopt the reflective attitude towards a proposed problem."* Now children are more interested in people than in institutions or events; and, if we can let them know some of the striking incidents in the lives of important characters in History, we may expect them to be more interested in the study of History when, at a later period, they frequently meet with these familiar names. The emphasis at this stage is therefore on biography.

(*b*) To help the development of the "historical sense." The "historical sense" includes the notion of time, the notion of a social unit, and, according to some, the notion of cause and effect. The notion of time implies the power "to represent the past as if it were present"—that is, the power to enter into the thoughts and feelings of people of the past as if we were living amongst them. This notion of time comes at different ages; to some early, to others very late. It came to Professor Shaler at the age of about eight or nine years, as the direct result of vivid story-telling:

"Of all the folk who were about me, the survivors of the Indian wars were the most interesting. There were several of these old clapper-clawed fellows still living, with their more or less apocryphal tales of adventures they had heard of or shared. There was current a tradition—I have seen it in print—that there had been a fight between the

* Raymont: *Principles of Education*

Indians and whites where the government barracks stood, and that two wounded whites had been left upon the ground, where they were not found by the savages. One of these had both arms broken, the other was similarly disabled as to his legs. It was told that they managed to subsist by combining their limited resources. The man with sound legs drove game up within range of the other cripple's gun, and as the turkeys or rabbits fell, he kicked them within reach of his hands, and in like manner provided him with sticks for their fire. This legend, much elaborated in the telling, gave me, I believe at about my eighth year, my first sense of a historic past, and it led to much in the way of fanciful invention of like tales." (N. F. Shaler: *Autobiography, Chap. I.*)

The best means at the teacher's command to assist its coming is to tell good stories from History with all the skill he has, though the stories need not be told in chronological order. The notion of time implies also in the older pupils the power to place events in this order.

The notion of a social unit is also of slow growth and must spring from the child's conception of the social units he belongs to—the home, the school, the community.

The notion of cause and effect does not belong so wholly to the study of History as the notions of time and of the social unit; it is surprising, however, how soon it makes its appearance in the child's conceptions of History, in his desire to know the "why" of things. (See Barnes' *Studies in Historical Method.*)

(*c*) To create and foster a liking for historical study. It is impossible, in the public school life of a child, which is usually ended at the age of twelve to fourteen years, to accomplish all that has been indicated above concerning the aims of History teaching. The most that can be done is to lay the foundation and give the pupil a desire to continue his reading after his school days are over. A serious responsibility lies on the teacher whose methods of teaching History, instead of attracting the child to the subject, give him a distaste for it. If History is made real and living to children, it is usually not difficult to have them like it. (For suggestions, see p. 24.)

2. *The Information Stage.*—There are several questions that children soon come to ask: "When?" and "Where?" "What?" and "Who?" This stage may be said to begin in earnest with the second Form, and it continues through the whole course. One of the essential elements in history study is to have a knowledge of the important facts of History, without which there can be no inferences of value for present use. The all important point in this teaching of facts is to keep the lessons interesting and not allow them to become mere lifeless memorizing of isolated happenings; for a fact is of value only when related to other facts. (See pp. 23, 24.)

3. *The Reflective Stage.*—This naturally follows the Information stage, as one must acquire facts before reflecting on them in order to draw inferences. But reflection of a simple kind may begin as soon as any facts are given that will show the relations of cause and effect. The question for the pupil here is "Why?" just as in the preceding stage the questions were "When?" and "Where?" "What?" and "Who?" Information and reflection may therefore be combined—with due regard to the pupil's capacity.

Practical Difficulties.—We may speak of two difficulties. 1. The first concerns the enormous amount of historical material that exists. It is increased still more by the intermingling of legend with history and by the partial narratives of prejudiced writers. The legendary part may be taken up in the Story stage; and the evils of one-sided accounts are often balanced by the greater vigour and interest of the narrative, as in Macaulay's writings. The difficulty connected with the great

amount of material can be solved by the selection (already largely made by the text-books) of the more important parts, that is, those facts of history that have the greatest influence on after times—" the points of vital growth and large connection " without which subsequent history cannot be properly understood.

2. The second difficulty has to do with deciding where to begin the teaching of History. There are two maxims of teaching that will help to solve this difficulty: *Proceed from the known to the unknown,* and *from the simple to the complex.* To apply these, we must decide what is, to the child, the known and the simple. We cannot assume that the present state of social life is known to the child; nor is it simple; on the contrary, it is very complex. How many children would be able to begin a study of History by having, as one writer suggests, " a short series of lessons . . . to make some simple and fundamental historical ideas intelligible—a state, a nation, a dynasty, a monarch, a parliament, legislation, the administration of justice, taxes, civil and foreign war!" These are ideas far beyond the comprehension of the beginner. We must be guided, not by " what happens to be near the child in time and place, but by what lies near his interests." As Professor Bourne says, " it may be that mediæval man, because his characteristics belong to a simple type, is closer to the experience of a child than many a later hero." With older children it is more likely to be true that the life of History lies " in its personal connections with what is here and now and still alive with us "; with historic places and relics, etc., which make their appeal first through the senses; with institutions like trial by jury; with anniversaries and celebrations of great events which may be used to arouse interest in the history which they suggest and recall.

However, as McMurry points out, we are in a peculiarly favourable position in Canada, because we have in our own history, in the comparatively short time of 400 years, the development of a free and prosperous country from a state of wildness and savagery. The early stages of our history present those elements of life that appeal strongly to children—namely, Indians with all their ways of living and fighting, and the early settlers with their simpler problems and difficulties. The development of this simpler life to the more complex life of the present can be more readily understood by children as they follow up the changes that have taken place. (See McMurray, *Special Method in History,* pp. 26-30.) Of course, at every step appeal must be made to the experiences of children, as the teacher knows them. In Civics, however, the beginning must be made with conditions that exist to-day—schools, taxes, the policeman, the postmaster, etc. The beginning of the real teaching of History may then be made at the beginning of Canadian History, as this will enable the child to go gradually from the simple to the complex, and will also allow the teacher to make use of whatever historical remains may be within reach.

METHODS

There are many methods used in the teaching of history. A brief description of the principal ones is given for reference:

1. Methods based on the arrangement and selection of the matter: Chronological, Topical.

2. Methods based on the treatment of historical facts: Comparative, Regressive, Concentric.

3. Methods based on class procedure: Oral and Text-book.

THE CHRONOLOGICAL METHOD

The matter is chosen according to the " time " order, beginning at the first of the history and the events are taught in the order of occurrence without any marked

emphasis on their importance, or without considering whether a knowledge of the event is useful or interesting to the class at this stage. Such an arrangement of matter is more suitable when the formal study of history is begun.

THE TOPICAL METHOD

In studying a certain period of history the events are arranged under topics or heads; for example, the period of discovery in Canadian History may be arranged thus—Discoveries, Explorations, Early Settlements, Indian Wars; and the study of each of these pursued to completion, contemporary events belonging to other topics being neglected for the time.

Events having the same underlying purpose, though occurring in different periods, may be arranged under one topic for review; for example, all the voyages of discovery to America may be grouped under the topic, "The Road to Cathay". (See p. 36.) In this way a comprehensive knowledge is gained. This method gives a full treatment of each topic and may be used to best advantage in connection with reviews in junior classes and occasionally as a text-book or library exercise in senior classes.

THE COMPARATIVE METHOD

By this method a comparison is made between two events, two biographies, two reigns, etc., a very useful device when applied in connection with other methods.

THE REGRESSIVE METHOD

In this method the pupil is expected to begin with the present and work backward, that is, to begin with institutions as they are to-day and to work backward through the various steps made in their progress toward their present state. It is of service in advanced, rather than in junior, classes, except that reference to the present may be made to arouse curiosity when the past is presented, for example: in the use of local material; a visit to the scene to-day will arouse curiosity and interest in what has occurred there in the past. (See pp. 20, 47.)

THE CONCENTRIC METHOD

This method, in use in Great Britain and Germany, deals in ever widening circles with the same topic or event; for example, a simple story of Champlain's life and voyages to Canada is told to the Form II class; the same story is considered again in Form III, but this time the different voyages are noted, the results of each investigated, and the whole summarized and memorized; again, in Form IV, but this time by the topical and comparative methods, where comparison is made of the purposes and achievements of the explorer with those of other explorers—Jacques Cartier, La Salle, etc. In this third discussion a full knowledge of Champlain's work is given.

The excellence of this work lies in its review and repetition. The old or former knowledge is recalled and used in each succeeding discussion of the topic. The pupils grow gradually into the full knowledge.

THE ORAL METHOD

This usually takes the form of an oral presentation of the story or description of the event by the teacher, while the pupils listen and afterwards reproduce what they have heard. The narration of the story is accompanied by pictures, sketches, maps,

etc., illustrative of persons, places, and facts mentioned. It may also take the "development" form, in which a combination of narrative and questioning is employed. (See pp. 29, 36.)

The Lecture method of Colleges and Universities is an advanced oral method. In this the teacher narrates and describes events, propounds questions, and discusses and answers them himself, while the pupils listen and during the lecture, or afterwards, make notes of what has been heard.

THE TEXT-BOOK METHOD

By this method the teacher assigns a lesson in the book and, after the pupils have an opportunity to study it, he asks questions concerning the facts learned. This, used exclusively, is ordinarily a very dull, lifeless way of teaching, and, if used with junior pupils, will prevent their enjoying, or receiving much benefit from, the study of History. There are two things that can be said in its favour—first, that it is an easy method for the teacher, and secondly, that the pupils memorize facts for the sole purpose of passing examinations. While this criticism is true when an exclusive use is made of the text-book, the same cannot be said when the text-book is used as an auxiliary to the teacher. Following the oral presentation of the story, reference may be made to the book for another version or for a fuller account and, in Form IV, topics may be assigned and the pupils directed to consult the text-book for the necessary information. (See p. 13.)

The text-book should be one that does not show an abrupt change from the story told by the teacher. It should not be merely a short outline of the important facts in history, written separately and then pieced together in chronological order, but should be written in a readable form by one who is able to distinguish the important and necessary from the unimportant and burdensome. It should have short summaries at the ends of chapters or stories of events, so that a grasp of what has been read may be easily obtained. It should also have many pictures, illustrations, and maps to take the place of the teacher's explanations in the earlier stage.

THE COMBINATION METHOD

As each of the above methods has its strong and its weak points, we should attempt to combine the strong points into one method, varied to keep pace with the mental development of the child. The "oral story" will form the foundation in the junior classes and should be combined with "development" problems at any place and stage where it may be possible to introduce them. In Form III the use of the text-book should be gradually introduced and in Form IV the arrangement of matter may be "topical," the development of the matter in the various forms being "concentric." The following will explain how this method may be used in the different classes:

In Forms I and II the oral narrative method should be used. The oral presentation of a story or description of an event requires much skill on the part of the teacher—skill in story telling, in grasping the important parts of the story or description, in knowing what details to omit as well as what to narrate, in explaining the story in a way that will make it real to the pupils, in preparing pictures and sketches to illustrate the different parts, and in questioning so that the minds of the pupils will be active as well as receptive.

The care and time necessary to secure this skill will be well repaid by the interest aroused in History, by the appreciation of the thoughts thus presented, and by the

lasting impressions conveyed. Simple, clear language should be employed, not necessarily small words, but words whose meaning are made clear by the context or illustrations.

When the whole story is told, revision may be made by having the pupils reproduce it after suitable questioning, either immediately or at some future time. Exercises in reproduction may also be given in constructive or art work; for example, after the story of the North American Indians, the pupils may be asked to construct a wigwam, a canoe, a bow and arrow, or to make pictures of Indians, of their houses, of their dress, etc.

An exercise in composition may also be given in writing the story, and each pupil may be assigned a special part; for example, the story of Moses may be divided thus: (1) As a babe; (2) His adoption by the Princess; (3) His life at the palace; (4) His flight to Midian; (5) The Burning Bush, etc., and each pupil may be asked to write a certain part of it. When these are read aloud the whole story is reproduced.

In Form III a slight change is necessary in this method. The story should show more division into sections, and when one section has been told and reviewed by questioning, a brief summary should be placed on the black-board. The headings should be suggested sometimes by the teacher, sometimes by the pupil.

In the narration of the story the teacher should frequently use the development method by asking problem questions—questions that require a consideration of conditions. The conditions necessary to the answering of the questions are clearly and vividly placed before the pupils as in a problem in arithmetic, and they are required to state what they think will be the result. (See pages 29, 36.) The answer, even if wrong, will give the pupil an exercise in judgment, will show him wherein his judgment differs from that of the persons concerned, will increase his interest in their action, and will impress the event on his memory.

When all the points of the story have been narrated and developed, one or more pupils may be asked to reproduce it, using the teacher's sketches and illustrations. If the reproduction is satisfactory and shows that the pupils have grasped the important parts of the story, they may be asked, for desk or home work, to read another version of the same story in some library book or magazine named by the teacher; or the text-books of Form IV may be borrowed and the story read in school. During this reading the summary should be left on the black-board or copied neatly into the pupils' note-books.

In Form IV another advance in method is necessary. The pupils have now some knowledge of the important persons in Canadian and British History and of the work they did, and have had some experience in the use of text-books. As History, however, is one of the subjects most dependent on books, the pupils need further training in the proper use of these. Such training will not be given by merely assigning lessons and compelling pupils to recite according to the text. Any one who has searched for material on a certain topic in History appreciates the good results that have come in the form of added knowledge and increased interest. The older pupils may be given some training of this nature by being asked, after certain necessary facts have been learned from the teacher, to find out for themselves the important details in connection with certain topics. A few such topics are given here as suggestions; they may be called examination questions to be answered with the help of the text-book:

1. Name, and tell something about, four of the explorers of Canada before 1759.
2. Name several other explorers of the New World.
3. Which explorer did the most for Canada, Champlain or La Salle?

4. In what wars did the French fight against the Iroquois? With what result?
5. What explorers of North America were trying to find a way to China and India? (This investigation by the class may precede the lesson on the "Road to Cathay." See § 38)
6. On what did English kings base their claim to be the overlords of Scotland? Trace the dispute down to the Union of the Crowns in 1603.
7. Find out how the slave trade was treated by the English.
8. Make a list of the early newspapers in Canada. Did they have much influence on public opinion?
9. Compare the struggles for the control of taxation in Canada and in the Thirteen Colonies of America? Explain why these were settled differently in the two cases.

With questions such as these for investigation, no pupils will be likely to secure the full facts; they may state in the next lesson what they have found, and the work of each will be supplemented by that of the others. With succeeding questions, it may be expected that the pupils will be more eager to get at all the facts in the text-book. At any rate they are learning how to gather material from books—a very valuable training, no matter how simple the topic is.

When, in the ordinary course of work, lessons from the text-book are assigned, the teacher should indicate the important points, should suggest certain matters for discussion, and should note certain questions to be answered, indicating precisely where the information may be obtained. In the recitation period following, the topic should be fully discussed, the pupils giving the information they have secured from the text-book, and the teacher supplementing this from his knowledge gained through wider reading. During the discussion an outline should be made on the board, largely by the suggestions of the pupils, and kept in their note-books for reference and review. (See p. 41, Lesson on the Feudal System.)

It must be remembered, however, that the exclusive use of the text-book is not the best method for Public School pupils; much of the work should still be given by the teacher orally, through narration and development questions, as in the lower Forms.

DRILL AND REVIEW

As has already been stated the Story stage is useful chiefly for the purpose of arousing interest and developing the historical sense; no drill or review is necessary other than the oral and, in Form II, sometimes the written, reproduction of the stories. The oral reproduction can be obtained in Form I by using the stories as topics in language lessons.

In the Information stage, where we are concerned more with the acquiring of facts, drills and reviews are necessary. During the lesson a summary is placed on the black-board by the teacher or pupil, as indicated above. This summary or topical outline is intended to consist of the answers of the pupils to questions on the part already explained, and indicates the important points of the subject. It is used as a guide in oral reproduction, and is also copied in special note-books and used for reference when preparing for review lessons.

This special note-book has the advantage of being the pupil's own work in the class, is a record of what he has already decided to be important points, is arranged in the order in which the subject has been treated in class, and is superior to the small note-books in History that are sometimes used as aids or helps. For the proper teaching of History, the latter are hindrances rather than helps, because they rob the pupil of the profit gained by doing the work for himself.

Special review lessons should be taken when a series of lessons on one topic, or a series of connected topics, has been finished. At the close of each lesson, the facts learned are fixed more firmly in the mind by the usual drill; but there must be

further organization of the several lessons by a proper review. This may be accomplished: (1) by questioning the class from a point of view different from that taken in the first lessons, (2) by oral or written expansion of a topical outline, (3) by illustrations with maps or drawings, (4) by tracing the sequence of events backwards, (5) by submitting some new situation that will recall the old knowledge in a different way. It must be remembered that it is not a mere repetition we seek, but a *re-view* of the facts, a new view that will prove the power of the pupils to use the knowledge they have gained. Thus the lesson on the St. Lawrence River (p. 47) is a good review of the facts of history suggested by the places mentioned; the lesson on the Road to Cathay (p. 36) may be considered a review of the chief explorers of North America. Such a review aims at seeing new relations, at connecting new knowledge and old, at "giving freshness and vividness to knowledge that may be somewhat faded, at throwing a number of discrete facts into a bird's-eye view."

CORRELATED SUBJECTS

HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY

These subjects are very intimately related, and each should be used in teaching the other. Geography, which is often called one of the "eyes of history," may be used in the teaching of this subject in two ways. In the first place, an account of a historical event lacks, to a certain degree, reality in the minds of the pupils if they do not know something of the place where it occurred. Accordingly, in studying or teaching history, reference should be constantly made to the map to give a local setting to the story. The voyage of Columbus, the operations of Wolfe, the coming of the Loyalists, are made more real if they are traced out on the map, and are therefore better understood and remembered by the pupils. For this purpose, it is better, in most cases, to use an outline map, which may be stretched on the black-board by the teacher or the pupils, because on the ordinary wall maps there are so many names and so much detail that the attention may be distracted. Many of the details on the map are, moreover, more modern than the events that are to be illustrated, so that wrong impressions may be given.

In the second place, it must be kept constantly in mind that many events in history have been influenced by the physical features of a country. For example: the lack of a natural boundary between France and Germany has led to many disputes between these countries; the fact of Great Britain being an island accounts for many things in her history (see p. 46); the physical features of Quebec and Gibraltar explain the importance of these places; and the waterways of Canada account for the progress of early settlement. The climate and soil of a country affect its history; treaties are often based on physical conditions, and trade routes determined by them; a nation's commerce and wealth depend largely on the character of its natural resources.

Some easy problems may be given to the senior classes to be answered by reference to physical conditions:

Why are London, New York, Chicago, Montreal, and Halifax, such important centres? Why are certain places fitted for certain manufactures? Will Winnipeg become a more important city than Montreal? Will Vancouver outstrip San Francisco? What is a possible future for the Western Provinces of Alberta and Saskatchewan? What might have been the state of North America to-day, if the Rocky Mountains had run along the East coast, instead of along the West?

On the other hand, history contributes a human interest to geography; the places of greatest interest are often those associated with great events in history—Athens, Mount Sinai, Waterloo, Queenston Heights.

HISTORY AND LITERATURE

Literature gives life and human interest to both history and geography. By means of literature we are able to get a better notion of the ideals and motives of a people than the mere recital of the facts of their history can give. In this connection we naturally think of Homer's *Iliad* and its influence on the Greeks. It was their storehouse of history, morals, religion, æsthetics, and rules for the practical guidance of life, as well as their literary masterpiece.

It is often easy to interest pupils in a period of history by reading or quoting to them some ballad, poem, or prose narrative that colours the historical facts with the element of human feeling. Macaulay's *Horatius* gives a deeper impression of Roman patriotism than almost anything in pure history can; the various aspects of the Crusades are vividly shown by W. Stearns Davis in *God Wills It,* a story of the first Crusade. In fact, if stirring events can be linked in the child's mind with stirring verse, if the struggles and progress of nations can be presented in a vigorous narrative that echoes the thoughts, feelings, and interests of the time, we make an appeal to the interest of the pupil that is almost irresistible. The objection is sometimes urged against the reading of standard historical tales and novels, that these are somewhat exaggerated in sentiment and inaccurate in facts. Even if this be so, it may be said that they give in outline a fair picture of the period described, that the interest in history aroused by such tales begets a liking for history itself, and that such exaggerations and inaccuracies soon disappear when the pupil begins to read history.

The course of history has been modified by songs, ballads, and stories. The influence on the national spirit and ideals of songs such as *Rule Britannia* and *The Marseillaise,* of stories such as *Uncle Tom's Cabin,* of novels such as those of Dickens and of Charles Reade is incalculable.

A few poems and prose compositions are given here as suggestions; a fuller list may be found in Allen's *Reader's Guide to English History,* Ginn & Co., 30c.

Poems: *Boadicea,* Cowper; *Recessional,* Kipling; *Edinburgh After Flodden,* Aytoun; *Hands All Round,* Tennyson; *Columbus,* Joaquin Miller; *Waterloo,* Byron; *The Armada,* Macaulay; *The Revenge,* Tennyson; *The Charge of the Light Brigade,* Tennyson.

Prose: *United Empire Loyalists,* Roberts' *History of Canada,* ch. 15; *Departure and Death of Nelson,* Southey; *Wolfe and Montcalm,* Parkman; *The Crusader and the Saracen,* in Scott's *The Talisman; The Heroine of Vèrchères,* Machar and Marquis.

HISTORY AND SCIENCE

The progress of the world has been largely due to scientific discoveries and inventions. The mere mention of such inventions as the mariner's compass, the printing-press, gunpowder, the steam-engine, the telegraph, the power-loom, and the cotton-gin, makes this evident.

To the introduction of the mariner's compass in the fourteenth century, by which sailors were enabled to go farther from the coast, we owe the explorations of the fifteen century that culminated in the discovery of America, and the way to

India by the Cape of Good Hope. The introduction of gunpowder in the fourteenth century gave the lower and middle classes a weapon that made them equal in power with the nobles and brought about the downfall of the feudal system, and the rise of modern democracies. The printing-press gave to the world the learning of the past and revolutionized social conditions. The invention of high explosives has made possible many of the great engineering works of to-day. The inventions that have made transportation and communication so easy and rapid have already done a great deal to bring nations to a better understanding of each other and thus to promote the peace of the world. Discoveries in medicine alone have had an incalculable influence on the health and prosperity of society. In fact, the study of history and an understanding of modern social and industrial conditions are impossible without a knowledge of scientific inventions and discoveries. (See p. 33-35.)

Children naturally take an interest in what individuals have done, and it is easy to interest them in the work of men such as Watt, Stephenson, Whitney, Fulton, Morse, Edison, Marconi, and their fellows. The biographies of famous inventors should therefore be given, both as a record of what they did and as an inspiration to like achievements.

HISTORY AND CONSTRUCTIVE WORK

Constructive work may be used to advantage in history and civics. It gives concrete expression to some facts of history through the construction by the pupils of objects mentioned therein. In studying Indian life, the class may make in paper, wood, etc., wigwams, bows and arrows, stockades, etc.; in connection with pioneer life, they may make some of the buildings and implements used by the pioneers,—log houses, spinning-wheels, hominy blocks, Red River carts, etc.; in studying campaigns, they may make models in plasticine or clay, or on the sand table, of forts, battlefields, etc., for example—the Plains of Abraham, Queenston Heights, Chateauguay, Plymouth Harbour; the Union Jack may be cut out and coloured. (See p. 38.) In this way the activities of the child may be made of practical use.

On the industrial and social side of history, which is being more and more emphasized, it is of great value to the child to become acquainted, even though on a small scale and through the simplest implements and machines, with the construction of machinery and modes of manufacture. For a lesson on the Industrial Revolution in England, for example, it will give pupils a better understanding of the changes, if they know something, through their own activities, of the way of making cloth.

For suggestions on Constructive work, see the Manual on the subject.

HISTORY AND ART

Art assists history in two ways. First, pictures may be used to illustrate events in history and make them real. It is often difficult for children to form a definite mental image of historical scenes merely from the words of the teacher or of the text-book, because their experiences are limited and the power to combine these properly is lacking. This is recognized now in the many text-books which are freely illustrated. Pictures of persons famous in history are also of value, in that they make these persons more real to the pupils. Materials for class use may be collected by the teacher and pupils,—engravings, prints, cuts from newspapers and magazines of famous people, buildings, cities, monuments, events; for example, the Landing of Columbus, the Coming of the Loyalists, the Fathers of Confederation, the Landing of the Pilgrim Fathers, an Old Time Trading Post, the Death of Brock.

A good idea is to have a class scrap-book, to be filled with suitable contributions from the class. The teacher will find a private scrap-book exceedingly useful. Many fine pictures are given in *The Highroads of History,* and the *Story of the British People* for Form III. It may be added that these pictures should be supplemented freely by descriptions and narratives given by the teacher.

Second, the pupils may be asked to illustrate, by drawings and sketch maps, historic places, routes of armies and of explorers, the journeys of settlers, etc.

HISTORY AND COMPOSITION

Composition is not so much a distinct subject as it is one that finds its material in every subject in the school. History is very rich in material suitable for both oral and written composition. Historical stories and topics may be freely used for compositions, and the power of expression is much improved by being exercised on material that is valuable in itself, and is not merely something by which a pupil is expected to show his skill in expression. The stories in the junior grades give almost unlimited scope for oral composition; the outlines made by the senior classes may be used as the framework of written composition. In both oral and written reproduction, the pupils should be encouraged to clothe the ideas in their own language, not to reproduce the exact words of the text. Moreover, in the study of history, the pupil hears or reads the compositions of others, and unconsciously gains, by these examples, much in vocabulary and in power of expression. In fact, much of the culture value of history depends on the training it affords in composition, and, by intimately connecting these two subjects, a double advantage is gained—the ability to comprehend historical material, and practice in effective expression.

THE USE OF DATES

Geography is one of "the eyes of history"; chronology, or dates, is the other. This suggests the use of dates to be merely a help in "seeing" events in history in their proper order, so that their relations to other events may be better understood. When these relations are seen, the dates lose much of their value. For example, we think of the Quebec Act as being passed in 1774, and the Constitutional Act in 1791, in order to place these Acts correctly in relation to the American Revolution of 1776, which had a close connection with them; we think of the dates of Cartier's voyages, 1534, 1535, and 1541, merely to raise the question as to why so much time elapsed between the second and third voyages. When these points are properly seen, the events are kept in place by their relation of cause and effect, and the dates lose their value. Moreover, the relations thus discovered will do most toward fixing these dates in the memory. It should be understood, therefore, that dates are only a means to an end, not an end in themselves.

It is important also to know the dates of certain events when we are studying the history of several countries, in order that we may consider together those events that are contemporary.

There are, of course, some dates that should be remembered because of the importance of the events connected with them, for example: 1066, 1215, 1492, 1603, 1688, 1759, 1776, 1789, 1841, 1867.

CURRENT EVENTS AND NEWSPAPERS

The study of history should not end with what is contained in text-books, for the making of history never ceases. The study of current events will be found to be a

very valuable element in history teaching. Teachers and pupils who are interested in the events of to-day are much more likely to be interested in the events of the past. A knowledge of current events will arouse curiosity in what led up to them, will suggest a motive for studying the past, and will often supply concrete illustration for both history and civics. History becomes real when pupils understand that what is happening to-day is history in the making. For example, the great movement of to-day for the prevention of war by world-wide arbitration of disputes between nations will be very likely, if brought to the attention of pupils, to create more interest in what used to be done; and conversely, a knowledge of the horrors and waste of war in the past will intensify interest in the peace movement of to-day.

The value of this phase of history teaching depends very largely on the interest taken in it by the teacher and on the work that the pupils can be induced to do for themselves. The teacher talks to the pupils about some important current event in an interesting way. Then the pupils are encouraged to add to what he has said by relating what they have heard, or have read in the newspapers. After a few lessons the chief difficulty is to make a suitable selection of topics to be discussed in class. Those of national importance, if within the scope of the Form work, will have prominence, and the pupils will be given hints as to articles about these topics in papers, magazines, and books. It is obvious that topics likely to arouse religious, political, or other party feeling, should be avoided. For actual school-room practice the following scheme has been used successfully in a Third Form:

CURRENT EVENTS (10 MINUTES DAILY)

The teacher has suggested the kinds of events that are worthy of discussion, and the pupils come to class prepared to tell what they have read in the papers about some of these. The teacher aids them to give fit expression to their information, and the pupil who has been chosen as editor writes a summary of the lesson on the black-board, and later, on a sheet of paper.

Ordinarily, the editors should be chosen from those who write and spell well.

Where the subject-matter lends itself to such treatment, these summaries may be placed in two columns—one, the *Girls' News Column*; the other, the *Boys' News Column*. The summaries on the sheets of paper may be arranged in order for a week or a month and known as *The School Review*. Such a lesson includes history, and oral and written composition.

The following items were taken from the black-board in a Third Form room on the date given:

GIRLS' NEWS COLUMN

Feb. 28th, 1911

The English actress Ellen Terry was 63 years old yesterday.

A test vote taken by the farmers at ——— to-day on Reciprocity resulted that eighteen want Reciprocity and thirty-five people don't.

They are going to fortify the Panama Canal.

Sixteen freight cars, loaded with grain, on its way from Port Arthur to Portland, Maine, for export, were piled up in a wreck near Toronto.

BOYS' NEWS COLUMN

Feb. 28th, 1911

Oil and gas have been found in Brantford.

King Manuel's crown is the heaviest in Europe, weighing 4 lb.

A skeleton has been found in the bed of the River Thames and is said to be 170,000 years old.

His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales made his first speech yesterday.

Chinese famine sufferers are driven to desperation.

These items supply material for a very useful discussion in the class as to what constitutes real "news" and what should be considered merely "gossip"; what is of value as news to the world at large, and what is of purely local interest. For example, to what class do the first item in the Girls' Column and the second and third items in the Boys' Column belong? Which items are of local interest? Which would be likely to have a wider appeal?

In civics, current topics may be made very useful. Articles on municipal, provincial, or federal affairs furnish a concrete basis for the study of our system of government.

LOCAL MATERIAL

PURPOSE.—One of the chief uses of local history in the class-room is to make the study of general history more vivid and interesting (*a*) by making more real those facts of history associated with the locality in which we live, and (*b*) by providing suitable illustrations, from the pupil's own experience, of facts in general history. When a pupil has seen the place where an event of history has happened, he has an interest in that event that he could scarcely gain in any other way, and the history of that period may then be taught with more interest and profit to him. A pupil finds also in local history certain facts that he must understand in order to interpret the story of happenings, distant in time and place.

MATERIAL.—Some parts of Ontario are much richer in material than others, but in all some historic spots may be found. On the St. Lawrence River, in the Niagara peninsula, in the Talbot settlement district, in York county, along the Ottawa River, in the Huron tract, there is no lack of useful material. But it is not necessary to confine such local history to the outstanding events of war or the larger happenings of civil progress. In every locality, there are remains of the earlier Indian inhabitants, in the form of mounds, sites of villages, relics of war and the chase (arrowheads, stone implements, beads, etc.); relics of the early settlers, in the form of roads and old log houses; relics of pioneer life consisting of furniture, household and outdoor implements, etc., that will serve as a basis for comparison with present-day conditions, and make real to the children the lives of the earlier inhabitants and settlers of Ontario.

ON MEMORIZING HISTORY

History is usually called a "memory" subject, and is accordingly often taught as a mere memorizing of facts, names, and dates. A brief statement of the chief principles of memorizing may help to a better method of teaching the subject.

1. Memory depends on attention; we must observe attentively what we wish to remember. In history, attention may be secured by making the lessons interesting through the skill of the teacher in presenting the matter vividly to the pupils; also by using means to make history real instead of having it a mere mass of meaningless words. (See p. 24.)

2. Facts that we wish to remember should be grouped or studied in relation to other facts with which they are vitally connected. The facts of history should be presented to the class in their relation of cause and effect, or associated with some larger centre of interest; in other words, the pupils must understand what they are asked to remember. (See pp. 33-35.)

3. If we increase the number of connections for facts, we are more likely to remember them. It is largely for this reason that history should be taught with correlated subjects, such as geography, literature, science (inventions), etc. For example, the story of the Spanish Armada is remembered better if we have read "Westward Ho!" and the story of the Renaissance is made clearer and is therefore remembered better, if we connect with it the inventions of printing, gunpowder, and the mariner's compass.

4. Repetition is necessary to memory. Facts or groups of facts must be repeated to be remembered. This is the purpose of the drills and reviews, which are necessary to good teaching, but are only a part of it.

SPECIAL TOPICS

CIVICS

The teaching of civics has a threefold aim:

1. To instruct in the mechanism of government. (Descriptive)

2. To instruct in the history of national institutions so as to show the line of development, and also to impress the fact that existing institutions are capable of development, are not fixed. (Historical)

3. "To show the cost of each institution in the efforts and sacrifices of past generations and to quicken and make permanent the children's interest in public life and their sense of responsibility to their fellows." (Patriotic and Ethical)

Two points stand out clearly—to teach the machinery of government and to instil ideals of public conduct. Of these the second is by far the more important and the more difficult to teach directly. The best way to attempt it is by means of biography and personal references. There are great men and women in history whose lives are worthy examples to the young. Sir John Eliot, Pym, Hampden, who stood for freedom of speech and debate; Gladstone, who helped to right historic wrongs in the East; Lincoln, who stood for union and the freedom of the individual; many eminent Canadians, such as Sir John Macdonald, George Brown, Alexander Mackenzie, Egerton Ryerson, and Sir Oliver Mowat; women such as Florence Nightingale and Elizabeth Fry, Laura Secord and Sarah Maxwell. Besides these eminent examples, there are in every locality men and women who give unselfishly of their energy and time for the good of the community.

There should also be impressed on the minds of the young a sense of their responsibility for an honest and faithful use of the ballot, a right won for them by the long and earnest effort of their forefathers; and the necessity for purity of government in our democratic form of administration. In school life, a good deal can be done to create a sense of fair play, respect for the rights of others, and of the necessity for submission to lawful authority by encouraging the pupils to conduct all their school organizations, whether in play or in work, honourably and by right methods.

Some of the lessons that may be taught to children during their school life are as follows:

1. Respect for the rights of others. Pupils may be brought to see that misconduct on their part affects others, not themselves only.

2. Respect for the property of others. This may be secured best by teaching them to take good care of their own property first, for unless a child cares rightly for his own, he is not likely to take much thought for the things of others.

3. Respect for public property. This is something that needs attention badly. It is a very common thing to find people destroying trees, flowers, etc., in public places, throwing refuse on the street, and otherwise disfiguring their surroundings. A beginning of better habits may be made by getting the pupils to aid in beautifying and decorating the school building by means of pictures, either prints or their own work, by flowers in pots, by keeping the floor and walls clean and free from marks and refuse; also in making the grounds around the school more attractive by means of flowers and shrubs. Arbor day may be made of great use in this respect, if the spirit of that day can be carried through the whole year. A pride in the attractiveness of the school will have its influence on the pupils in the wider life of the community.

A knowledge of the machinery of government may be based on the pupils' knowledge of the organization of the school. The appointment, power, and duties of the teacher are the starting-point. The next step will be to investigate the composition of the board of school trustees. The following questions may serve as an outline of study for all the political bodies by which we are governed:

1. Who compose the board of trustees? (In the smaller local bodies, the names of the members may be mentioned, as giving a personal interest in the matter.)
2. How and by whom are they elected?
3. For what period are they elected?
4. How is the board organized for the conduct of business?
5. What powers do they possess?
6. What duties have they to fulfil?
7. How do they raise the money needed for their work?
8. How is the Board rendered continuous? (By electing a successor to a member who resigns; by the trustees remaining in office till their successors are elected.)

Other governing bodies may be taken up similarly, for example: Municipal Councils (township, village, town, or city council), County Council, Provincial Legislature, Dominion or Federal Parliament, Imperial Parliament. A suitable time to bring up the topic of how elections are conducted would be when an election for any of the above bodies is in progress. Information on this topic may be found in *Canadian Civics,* by Jenkins; a fuller account is given in Bourinot's *How Canada is Governed.*

Lessons concerning special bodies of municipal and civil servants may be taken; for example, the assessor, tax-collector, policeman, postal employees, firemen, etc. In connection with all of these, the question of taxation is constantly arising. It is suggested that something should be done to put the pupils in the right attitude toward this subject. Many people have an idea that when they pay taxes they are being robbed, because they do not stop to think of what they are getting in return for their money. The chief reason for this seems to be that the taxes are usually paid once a year, while the services rendered are continuous. A good way to proceed is to have the class calculate the value of the services given in return for the taxes. For example, suppose it is found that the yearly cost for each pupil in a certain section is $15.00. Divide this by the number of days (200) a pupil attends school during the year, and the cost each day for each pupil is shown to be only 7½ cents, not a very large sum for a community to pay for a child's education. Other calculations may be made to show the saving to farmers by spending money in the construction of good roads to make teaming more profitable.

In a strip of country served by a road 10 miles long, there is room for 80 farms of 100 acres each, all the produce of which would be hauled on that road. Let us suppose that this produce would amount to 3,000 loads, such as could be hauled on an ordinary country road. The average haul being five miles, two trips a day could be made. At $5.00 a day, the cost of haulage would be $7,500.

Suppose this road to be converted into a good stone road at a cost of $3,000 a mile, a total cost of $30,000. On this road the farmers could easily double the size of the load. This would mean that instead of 3,000 loads being necessary, 1,500 loads would be sufficient. At the same rate as before, the cost of haulage would be $3,750, an annual saving of $3,750; so that the whole cost of the road would be saved in eight years, to say nothing of the greater ease and comfort of travel to both man and beast. It is believed that these figures are quite within the bounds of probability.

In large towns and cities the cost of public utilities may be calculated; for example, the expense of a fire station in buildings, equipment, horses, men, etc., to show how the money raised by taxes is spent for the good of the whole community. The kinds of taxes may be discussed—direct and indirect; also the sources from which indirect taxes are derived—customs, excise, etc.; how taxes are spent for the various educational and charitable institutions—schools, libraries, hospitals, asylums, homes for the poor and neglected, etc.; the protection of life and property; the administration of justice, etc.

The lessons learned about the fairness of taxation may be used to illustrate certain periods in history when people struggled against unjust and arbitrary taxation; for example, Wat Tyler's Rebellion, the Civil War in England in the Seventeenth Century, the American and French Revolutions, Acts of Parliament in Canada from the Quebec Act to the Act of Confederation.

THE TEACHER OF HISTORY

The teacher of history must know his subject. He must have a sufficient knowledge of facts, and for this he is earnestly recommended to read at least one book in addition to the authorized text-book. This does not usually contain much more than the important facts of history. To clothe the skeleton of facts with flesh and blood so as to make history what it really is, a record of human beings who not only did things but had also thoughts and feelings like our own, it is necessary to be able to supply those personal details that make the figures of history real living men and women. The teacher who does this will himself come to have a more lively interest in history.

The teacher must also know children. For the understanding of history, pupils are dependent on their previous knowledge of life and its interests. They must be led by timely suggestions or questions to see the connection between their own knowledge of life and the experiences of the actors in history. Without this connection, the facts of history remain meaningless.

To present history to the pupils in an interesting way, the oral method is the best. It is not necessary for the teacher to have a special gift for narration; any one who is really interested in the story to be told is able to tell it well enough to hold the attention of the class. In narration, mere fluency is not the chief requisite; it is more important that the pupils should feel the teacher's interest in the topic. The narration must also be confined to the facts and details that count; the teacher needs to know what to omit as well as what to narrate. If the matter has been well thought out and clearly arranged in topics with due regard to the relation of cause and effect, the telling of the story will be an easier matter and the pupils will be trained also in a clear and logical way of treating history. The oral method

should be supported by the free use of devices for making the story real. (See below.) While it is quite true that certain important topics are to be thoroughly mastered as centres of connection for the less important facts, yet it must be insisted on that a more important aim of the teacher is to arouse and stimulate an interest in history so that the pupil's study of it may continue after the close of his school-days. No mastery of facts through memorization alone will counterbalance the lack of interest in, and liking for, the subject.

HOW TO MAKE HISTORY REAL

The chief difficulty in teaching history is to give a meaning to the language of history. Much of the language is merely empty words. The Magna Charta and the Clergy Reserves mean just about as much to pupils as x does in algebra, and even when they give a definition or description of these terms, it usually amounts to saying that x equals y; the definition is just as vague as the original terms. The problem is to give the language more meaning, to ensure that the words give mental pictures and ideas; in short, to turn the abstract into concrete facts.

Children can make their own only such knowledge as their experience helps them to interpret. Their interests are in the present, and the past appeals to them just so far as they can see in it their own activities, thoughts, and feelings. The great aim of the teacher, then, should be to translate the facts of history into terms of the pupils' own experiences; unless that is done, they are really not learning anything. Some of the ways in which this may be attempted are outlined below.

1. In the junior classes where the children are intensely interested in stories, the stress should be put on giving them *interesting personal details* about the famous people in history, details that they can understand with their limited experiences of life, and that will appeal to their emotions. These stories should be told to the pupils with such vividness and animation that they will struggle with Columbus against a mutinous crew, will help the early explorers to blaze their way through the dense forests, will toil with the pioneers in making homes for themselves in Canada, and will suffer with the missionaries in their hardships and perils.

For these pupils the oral method is the only one to use, for there is nothing that appeals to children more quickly and with more reality than what they *hear* from the teacher. The oral method should find a large place in the teaching of history in all the Forms. It may be added that the teachers who use this method will find history become a more real and interesting study to themselves.

2. What the pupils hear should be reinforced by giving them something to *see*. Whatever pictures are obtainable (see p. 52) should be used freely at all stages, for the visual images of children are a powerful aid to their understanding; it is for this reason that readers for children are now so fully illustrated, and the same principle should be applied to the teaching of history.

As soon as the children are ready for it, reference should be made to maps to illustrate historical facts. (See p. 52.) They should see on the map the course that Columbus took across the unknown sea; Champlain's explorations become real when they are traced on the map, and the children have a concrete picture to carry away with them. In fact the subjects of Geography, Art, and Constructive Work, treated under the head of correlated subjects, are used in history with the aim of making it real through the eye. (See pp. 15, 18.)

3. A greater difficulty presents itself when we have to deal, in the higher Forms, with topics like the Magna Charta and the Clergy Reserves, and it is a difficulty that will test to the full the resourcefulness of the teacher. How can the preceding

conditions and the terms of the Magna Charta be brought home to a class? How can children be brought to appreciate the difficulties connected with the question of the Clergy Reserves? A few words about the latter may suggest a means.

Two aspects of the Clergy Reserves question stand out prominently, the religious and the economic. The religious aspect will be the most difficult for Ontario children, for they have no immediate knowledge of what a State Church is—the point on which the religious dispute turned; nor do they know enough about the government of the religious bodies to which they belong to make the matter clear to them. A full understanding must come later. The best point of approach seems to be to give the class some idea of the number of settlers belonging to the churches of England and of Scotland, which claimed the right to the lands reserved, and compare with this the number of all other Protestant bodies that claimed to share in them; for this difference in numbers was one of the chief causes of bitterness. An arithmetical appeal is concrete. There was also the economic aspect. The Clergy Reserves were one seventh of the land in each township. Another seventh was withheld from free settlement as Crown Lands. Now in some townships there were about 50,000 acres. Let the class find out how many acres were thus kept from settlement. Tell them that this land was not all in one block, but distributed through the township. They can now be asked to consider how this would interfere with close settlement and therefore with the establishment of schools, churches, post-offices, mills, and stores. A diagram of a township would be of great help. These two points will help them to see why an early and fair settlement of the vexed question was desired.

4. The reading to the class of accounts of events written by people living at the time will give an atmosphere of reality and human interest to the events. For example, a story of early pioneer days told by a pioneer gives a personal element (see *Pioneer Days,* Kennedy); a letter by Mary, Queen of Scots, to Elizabeth will make both of these queens real living people, not mere names in history. (See *Studies in the Teaching of History,* Keatinge, p. 97, also, selections from *The Sources of English History,* Colby, p. 163.) Not much of this may be possible, but more use might easily be made of such materials, especially with the early history of Ontario.

5. The use of local history and of current events has been treated elsewhere. (See pp. 19, 20.)

6. When possible, let the pupils form their idea of an historical person from his actions and words, just as we form our estimate of each other, instead of having them memorize mere summaries of his character before they know his actions.

7. Genealogical and chronological tables, written on the black-board and discussed with the class, will be of service in understanding certain periods, such as the Wars of the Roses, and in helping to form the time-sense of pupils. (See Chronological Chart, p. 53.)

8. Chief dependence must be placed, however, on increasing the pupil's knowledge of present-day conditions in agriculture, commerce, transportation, manufactures, in fact in all social, economic, and political conditions, in order to enable him by comparison to realize earlier methods and ways of living. The pupil who understands best how we do things to-day can understand best the state of affairs when people had to depend on primitive methods, and can realize how they would strive to make things better.

ILLUSTRATIVE LESSONS

TYPE LESSON IN THE "STORY STAGE"

The aim of this lesson is to give the pupils the story of "Moses and the Burning Bush," and at the same time to arouse an interest in stories.

As a preparation for the lesson, the teacher should secure pictures, or make sketches, illustrating (*a*) Moses tending his flocks, (*b*) The Burning Bush, (*c*) the rod turning to a serpent, (*d*) Moses setting out to do God's will. The pictures and sketches are used to make real the verbal story.

A few questions recalling the earlier events in Moses' life should be answered by the pupils, for example: Moses as a baby in the bulrushes, his adoption by the Princess, his life in the palace, his killing of the Egyptian, the cause of his flight into Midian.

The teacher should then narrate in clear, simple language the story of Moses in Midian, dividing it into parts such as: Moses at the well, his home with Jethro, the appearance of the Burning Bush, his talk with God, his excuses, God's proof of power to help, his setting out to do God's will.

In Form I it may be advisable to question, during the story, to ascertain if the language and ideas are understood, but reproduction of each part as it is narrated will probably result in a loss of attention and a lack of interest in the remainder of the story. The reproduction should, therefore, be taken after the completion of the story.

In Form II very short topic-phrases may be written on the black-board. These will serve as a guide to the pupils in the oral or written reproduction that follows.

If illustrated story-books containing this story are in the library, pupils of Form II may be asked to read them.

FLORENCE NIGHTINGALE

FORM II

In the war that England and France were carrying on against Russia in the Crimea about fifty years ago, the English soldiers suffered terrible hardships, so terrible that more than half the army was in the hospital, and many men were dying of starvation and neglect. The people in England knew nothing of this, because they thought that everything the army needed had been sent to it. At last, they found out from the letters of Dr. Russell, the correspondent of the London *Times,* how great were the sufferings of the soldiers, and they were so shocked at this state of things that they subscribed large sums of money, many thousands of dollars, and sent out to the army Florence Nightingale and thirty-four other nurses to do what they could for the neglected soldiers. After they came, the wounded and sick soldiers were so well cared for that thousands of them lived to come home who would have died if these noble women had not gone out to nurse them.

Do you want to know why Florence Nightingale was the one person out of all the people of England to be asked to go? From her earliest childhood she was always doing what she could to help those who were in trouble. The poor and suffering appealed to her more than to most people. When quite young, she went to visit the poor and sick on her father's estates, carrying to them some little dainties or flowers that they would be sure to like, and helping them to get well. All the animals around her home liked her, because they knew that she would not hurt them; even the shy squirrels would come quite close to her and pick up the nuts she dropped

for them. An old gray pony, named Peggy, would trot up to her when she went into the field to see it, and put its nose into her pocket for the apple or other little treat that she always had for it. A sheep dog had been hurt by a stone thrown at it by a boy, and the owner thought that its leg was broken and that he would have to kill it. But it turned out to be only a bad bruise and the dog was soon well with Florence's nursing.

When her rich parents took her to London, she preferred visiting the sick people in the hospitals to enjoying herself at parties or in sight-seeing. When the family travelled in Europe, she visited the hospitals to see how the sick were being looked after. She went to one of the best hospitals in Germany to study how to nurse the sick in the best way. When she came back to England, she did a great deal to improve the hospitals, and for many years she worked so hard that her health began to fail.

It was because of what she had done in this way that she was asked to go to the Crimea to take charge of the hospitals for the English soldiers. When she came there she found things in a terrible condition. The sick and wounded men were crowded in such unhealthy rooms that they had very little chance to get well. She cleaned up the buildings, gave the patients clean beds and clothes, and saw that they had good, well-cooked food to eat. She looked after their comfort, sat beside their beds when they were very ill, and wrote letters for them to their families at home. Because she often walked through the rooms at night, alone, and carrying a little lamp in her hand, to see that everything was all right, she was called "the lady with the lamp." As she went about, speaking to some, nodding and smiling to others, we can imagine how much the poor soldiers thought of her.

When the war was over, the people of England were so grateful to her that the Government gave her a very large sum of money, $250,000, but she gave it all to build a school where nurses might be trained for their work. Queen Victoria gave her a beautiful jewel to show what she thought of the brave work that Florence Nightingale did.

She lived for many years, doing a great deal to show how to treat people who are ill, and how to keep people well by securing for them plenty of "pure air, pure water, cleanliness, and light." She died Aug. 10, 1910, but the good she did in saving the lives of so many soldiers will always be remembered.

METHOD.

It is not intended that this story should be given to the pupils just as it is set down. The account is given to indicate what facts may be told to pupils as young even as those in the senior part of Form I, and how the story may be simplified for their understanding. After the story is told, vividly and sympathetically, the reproduction by the class follows in the usual way.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS OF LESSON ON THE ARMADA

FORM IV

I. CAUSES

1. *Political.*—(*a*) Ambition of Philip to rule Europe; chief obstacles were England, France, The Netherlands.

(The opposition of France was overcome by a treaty and by the marriage of Philip and Isabella of France after Elizabeth had refused Philip's offer of marriage. The Netherlands were in full revolt and could not be conquered even by the cruelties of Alva and the destruction of their commerce. England was the chief Protestant power in Europe and, as such, was the chief opponent of Spain.)

(*b*) The marriage trouble; Elizabeth's religious policy broke off negotiations of marriage with Philip.

(*c*) Philip received as a legacy the rights of Mary, Queen of Scots to the English throne.

2. *Commercial.*—Interference of the English in the New World, to which Spain claimed sole right.

(This includes the English settlements as well as the capture of Spanish treasure ships. Recall stories of Drake, Hawkins, etc.)

3. *Religious.*—Philip was the chief supporter of Roman Catholicism in Europe, and wished to impose his religion on England.

(This was the period of compulsion in religious matters.)

II. EVENTS

1. Preparations in Spain and England.

(Spain set about preparing a large fleet, to carry soldiers as well as sailors. The best Spanish general was in command at first. His death put an incapable man in command, who was largely responsible for the defeat. The Duke of Parma was to co-operate from the Netherlands with a large army. In England, the small battle fleet was increased by the voluntary contributions of all classes till it actually outnumbered the Spanish fleet, though the vessels were very much smaller. A comparison of the fleets as they were on the eve of battle should be made.)

2. Difference in the national spirit in the two countries.

(The Spanish were on an expedition of conquest; the sailors were ill-trained and many serving against their will. The English were defending their homes; they forgot their religious and political differences in their patriotism; the sailors were hardy, fearless, and most skilful in handling their ships.)

3. The affair at Cadiz.

(Retarded the invasion for a year, gave England more time for preparation, and encouraged hopes of success.)

4. The battle in the Channel.

(Armada attacked on the way to Dover, July 28—Aug. 6, 1558; fireships at Calais, Aug. 6; final engagement, Aug. 8-9; a chance for a vivid description by the teacher.)

5. Storm completes the ruin of the Armada.

(Facts to be given as to the losses of the Armada; recall stories of wrecked Spanish vessels on the coasts of Scotland, etc., and recommend class to read some story, such as Kingsley's *Westward Ho.*)

III. RESULTS

1. Ruin of Spain and of Philip's ambitions. [Connect with I. 1 (*a*)]
2. Influence on England's patriotism and maritime power.
3. Greater religious tolerance in England.
4. Marvellous growth of literature in England partly due to this.
5. Effect on America. It decided for all time that Spain should not rule the New World, but that the Anglo-Saxons should, with all their ideals of political, social, and religious liberty.

THE CAPTURE OF QUEBEC

FORM III

The introduction to this lesson will consist of questions recalling the matter of the past lesson or lessons, and the positions of the British and the French forces in

the spring of 1759. This can be easily done by sketching on the black-board a map of North America and marking on it with coloured chalk the position of each force. The chief settlements to be mentioned in the lesson of the day should also be marked. For the matter of this, see the Ontario *Public School History of Canada,* pages 83-97, and Parkman's *Montcalm and Wolfe.*

The teacher describes the voyage of Wolfe from Louisburg to Quebec, mentioning the means taken to secure pilots and to overcome the difficulties of navigating the St. Lawrence.

When the pupils, following the voyage, have arrived at Quebec, a description of the topography of the vicinity should be given, and an enlarged sketch, or better still, a plasticine model, made to show this. (See text-book, page 100) On this sketch or model the disposition of the French forces should be shown, and then problems may be given as to actions that might be taken by Wolfe. For example: How would you attempt to destroy the fort? Where may Wolfe land his soldiers? What led the French to place their soldiers down as far as the Montmorenci? No doubt some wrong answers will be given, but the probability is that some boy will say that he would take some guns to the high bank on the Levis side and bombard the town of Quebec. The teacher will then tell what was done and with what results.

This should be outlined briefly on the black-board and problem questions proposed as to the attempt of Wolfe to dislodge the French at Montmorenci.

This second step is also told and added to the outline, after which the teacher proceeds to explain the final step, dwelling particularly on the illness of Wolfe, his careful arrangement of plans, the courage shown in attempting the surprise of the hill, the speed with which his forces were drawn up on the Plains, the battle with its final outcome.

This is added to the outline and the whole story is reproduced orally before the class is dismissed.

As desk work, the outline is copied in note-books and the pupils are directed to read the full story in Parkman's *Wolfe and Montcalm* or in the text-book.

Note: If Plasticine be used, miniature cannon, ships, bridges, etc., may be placed in position and a realistic explanation of the battle given. This would require more time and the whole story would require several lesson spaces.

References: The text-book, Weaver's *Canadian History for Boys and Girls,* and Parkman's *Wolfe and Montcalm.*

THE FIRST THANKSGIVING

FORMS I, II

Materials.— A set of pictures showing "The Mayflower in Plymouth Harbour"; "The Landing of the Pilgrims"; "The Pilgrims going to Church"; "Plymouth Rock." (Perry Picture Co. pictures)

A map of the western coast of Europe and the eastern coast of America drawn on the black-board.

Introduction.— A talk on Thanksgiving Day as celebrated now—the returning of thanks to God for a bountiful harvest, the general goodwill prevailing, the dinner. How and when did this custom originate?

Presentation.— The teacher tells the story of the emigration of the Pilgrim Fathers, and shows the pictures that illustrate the different parts of the story. The voyage is traced on the map and the landing-place in America marked.

This should be followed by a spirited reading of Mrs. Hemans' *The Landing of the Pilgrim Fathers,* and the telling of *The First Thanksgiving.* (See Appendix)

A simple version of this story may be given to pupils in Form I, accompanied by such construction work, in paper cutting and colouring, and in modelling, as they can do.

THE POSTMASTER

FORM II

This is an introductory lesson in Civics, in which the aim is to make the pupils familiar with the duties, qualifications, salary, and importance of the postmaster.

The teacher and class, in imagination, make a visit to the post-office and describe what may be seen therein. A pupil's letter is prepared, and the teacher, by using an old envelope, shows what is done with the letter, till it reaches the person to whom it is addressed, tabulating these points on the black-board: (1) Stamped; (2) Stamp cancelled; (3) Placed in the mail bag; (4) Taken to the railway station; (5) Placed on the train; (6) Received at its destination; (7) Marked to show date on which it was received; (8) Sorted; (9) Delivered. Another used envelope should be shown to the pupils that they may trace, from the impressions stamped upon it, its "sending" and "receiving" offices. From a consideration of these several duties of the postmaster the pupils may be led to see that he should be an honest, careful, courteous, and prompt person.

The teacher next explains how people sent letters, etc., before post-offices were instituted, and shows that the postmaster, in doing his work, is doing it as our representative, and that we should help him in the performance of his duty by plainly addressing our letters, etc.

A further explanation as to the manner of appointment and payment of salary may follow.

In another lesson, the secondary duties of the postmaster—the registration of letters, issuing of money orders and of postal notes, the receiving and forwarding of money to the Savings Bank, and the making of reports to the Post-Office Department—may be discussed.

In teaching these the objective method should be used. The teacher should obtain envelopes of registered letters and a registration blank, a blank money order, and a blank postal note, and instruct the pupils in the proper method of filling out these forms.

EGERTON RYERSON

FORM III

One of the objects of instruction in Civics is to create in the pupils ideals of citizenship that may influence their conduct in after life. The most powerful agency to use for this object is the life of some useful and unselfish citizen who gave his talents and energy to the bettering of his country. In using biography for this purpose the pupils should be given only such facts as they can comprehend, and these facts should be made as real, vivid, and interesting as possible by appropriate personal details and concrete description.

Dr. Ryerson, in speaking of his birth and parentage, said: "I was born on March 24th, 1803, in the township of Charlotteville, near the village of Vittoria, in the then London district, now the county of Norfolk. My father had been an

officer in the British army during the American Revolution, being a volunteer in the Prince of Wales' Regiment of New Jersey, of which place he was a native. His forefathers were from Holland, and his more remote ancestors were from Denmark. At the close of the American revolutionary war, he, with many others of the same class, went to New Brunswick, where he married my mother, whose maiden name was Stickney, a descendant of one of the early Massachusetts Puritan settlers. Near the close of the last century, my father with his family followed an elder brother to Canada, where he drew some 2,500 acres of land from the Government for his services in the army, besides his pension."

(If the pupils have been told about the Pilgrim Fathers, and the U. E. Loyalists, a review of those stories will add interest to this lesson; if not, it will serve as an introduction to them.)

Ryerson's mother had a very strong influence over him. She was a very religious woman with a great love for her children, and her son Egerton learned from her lessons that never ceased to influence him. After telling how she treated him when he had done something naughty, he says that "though thoughtless and full of playful mischief, I never afterwards knowingly grieved my mother, or gave her other than respectful and kind words."

The whole family had to work hard at clearing the land and farming it. Before he was twenty-one years of age he "had ploughed every acre of ground for the season, cradled every stalk of wheat, rye, and oats, and mowed every spear of grass, pitched the whole first on a wagon, and then from the wagon to the haymow or stack." This was the work that gave him strength and health to do the great things that were before him. His years in the district school were few, yet he made such good use of them that when he was only fifteen years old he was asked to take the place of one of his teachers during the latter's illness. Further instruction from teachers was not given him till he came of age. Then he went to Hamilton to study in the Gore district grammar school for one year. Here he studied so strenuously that he was seized with an attack of brain fever, which was followed by inflammation of the lungs. His life was despaired of, but his good constitution and his mother's nursing restored him to health.

Shortly afterwards he began his work as a Methodist preacher. When twenty-three years old, he undertook a mission to the Indians at the Credit and resided among them, as one of themselves, to show them better ways of living and working. This is part of his account: "Between daylight and sunrise, I called out four of the Indians in succession, and, working with them, showed them how to clear and fence in, and plow and plant their first wheat and cornfields. In the afternoon I called out the school-boys to go with me, and cut and pile and burn the brushwood in and around the village."

In 1829 *"The Christian Guardian"* newspaper was organized as the organ of the Methodists, and the young preacher placed in the editorial chair; in 1841 he was chosen President of Victoria College.

In 1844 Dr. Ryerson was appointed Chief Superintendent of Education for Upper Canada. He immediately set himself to awaken the country to a proper estimate of the importance of education, and to improve the qualifications of teachers. He urged the people to build better schools and to pay better salaries, so that well-qualified teachers could be engaged. He visited foreign countries to study their systems and methods that he might make the schools of Upper Canada

more efficient. A Provincial Normal and Model School was established in 1847, better books were provided for the pupils, more and better apparatus and maps for all schools. All this was done in the face of many difficulties inevitable in a new country—popular ignorance, apathy, lack of means to build schools and support them, lack of time to attend them. The opposition of many who did not set the same value on education that he himself did had also to be faced. With unwearied zeal, steadfast courage, and unfailing patience, he met these difficulties. For over thirty years, he devoted his matured manhood and great endowments to the task of developing a public sentiment in favour of education, and of building on sure foundations a system of elementary and secondary schools that is the just pride of our Province and his own best monument.

In 1876 he resigned his position of Chief Superintendent, and was succeeded by a Minister of Education. He had nobly fulfilled the promise he made on accepting office in 1844—"to provide for my native country a system of education, and facilities for intellectual improvement not second to those in any country in the world."

He died in 1882. To honour him in his death as he had served it in his life the whole country seemed assembled, in its representatives, at his funeral. Members of the Legislature, judges, University authorities, ecclesiastical dignitaries, thousands from the schools which he had founded, and above all, the common people, for whose cause he never failed to stand, followed to the grave the remains of the great Canadian who had lived so faithfully and well for his country.

For a Form IV class, the following should be included in the lesson:

With the close of the War of 1812 there opened a new era in the history of Canada. Its people had realized that their country was worth fighting for, and they had defended it successfully. A new interest in its political life was awakened, new movements inaugurated. These were along three lines—one, political with responsible government as its object; another, religious with equal rights and privileges for all churches as its aim; a third, educational with equal and efficient instruction for all without distinction of class or creed as its purpose. The first movement is known as the struggle for Responsible Government—the struggle for equal political rights; the second, as the Secularization of the Clergy Reserves—the struggle for equal religious rights; the third as the University Question—the struggle for non-denominational control of education. In the second and third movements Dr. Ryerson played a very prominent part and, because these affected the politics of his day, he took a keen interest in the first.

NOTE: For purposes of reference, consult *The Story of My Life* by Dr. Ryerson; *The Ryerson Memorial Volume* by Dr. J. G. Hodgins; and *Egerton Ryerson* by Nathaniel Burwash in THE MAKERS OF CANADA.

THE INTERCOLONIAL RAILWAY

FORMS III AND IV

1. Provisions for Building the Road.—The building of the Intercolonial Railway was spoken of as early as 1824, but no scheme was agreed upon till the confederation of the provinces in 1867. In the B. N. A. Act there was a provision that "the Canadian Government should build a railway connecting the St. Lawrence with Halifax, to be commenced within six months after the Union."

The teacher may ask why there is no mention of Upper Canada in connection with the Intercolonial Railway. The reason is that there were already transportation facilities by way of the St. Lawrence, with the Lachine, Welland, and other canals, built before Confederation, and also by the Grand Trunk Railway, the main line of which, from Sarnia to Quebec, was completed in 1856.

2. Reasons for Building the Road.—As a result of the friction between Great Britain and Canada, and the United States, in connection with the Civil War in that country, it was feared that the United States would refuse to allow Canadian goods to pass freely through their country to the Atlantic seaboard. If this happened, Canada's foreign trade would be almost entirely stopped during the winter months, when the St. Lawrence was frozen over. There was need for an independent outlet, by a railway entirely on Canadian territory. Military considerations also had their weight, as will be seen below.

3. The Selection of the Route.—Three routes were possible. These should be traced on the map. The straight line was out of the question, as it would lead through the United States. The most direct route on Canadian soil was along the valley of the St. John River. This was objected to for military reasons. There was a good deal of ill-feeling at this time in both Canada and the United States over the Alabama and Trent affairs, and some feared that war might break out between the two countries after the Civil War was ended. This route lay too near the border and would be open to attack very easily by the enemy; further, the British Government, which was to guarantee the bonds of the new railway, objected to it purely on military grounds. The third, or northern, route was chosen as meeting both military and commercial interests, the military predominating, though it was 138 miles longer than the second. Other roads have since been built, for purely commercial purposes, along the rejected routes.

The Intercolonial railway has done good service in consolidating the new Dominion.

4. The Route.—

In Nova Scotia: Halifax to Truro to Amherst.
In New Brunswick: To Moncton, to Newcastle, to Dalhousie.
In Quebec: To Metis, to Riviere du Loup, to Levis, to St. Hyacinthe, to Montreal.

Branches.—

1. Truro to New Glasgow and Sydney.
2. Moncton to St. John.

The distance is 1,450 miles, and the cost about $80,000,000, not including the Prince Edward Island Railway, owned by the Government.

INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION IN ENGLAND, 1760-1800

FORMS III AND IV

Note: This lesson should be preceded by an information lesson on the making of cotton goods—the material, how and where the raw material is grown, how it is harvested, the difference between spinning and weaving, the meaning of warp and woof or weft.

The aim of the lesson is to show how a remarkable series of inventions changed completely the processes of manufacturing, made England the greatest manufacturing nation in the world, and gave her a source of wealth that enabled her to carry on the costly wars against Napoleon.

1. Domestic System of Manufacture.—Before 1760, the manufacture of cotton was carried on in the homes of the people. A spinner would procure a supply of raw cotton from the dealer and carry it home, where, with the help of his family, he would spin it into threads or yarn and return it to the dealer. The spinning was all done by hand or foot-power on a wheel that required one person to run it and that would make only one thread at a time. The weaving was also done at home. The demand of the weavers for yarn was greater than the spinners could supply, because one weaver could use the product of many spinners, and there was great need of finding some way of producing yarn more rapidly.

2. Hargreave's Spinning-Jenny.—The first important invention was the "spinning-jenny" of Hargreaves (1764). This man was an ordinary spinner and the story is told that one day, when he was returning from the dealer with a fresh supply of cotton, he came home before his wife expected him. Supper was not ready and in her haste to rise to prepare it, she overturned the wheel when it was still in motion. Hargreaves, entering at that moment, noticed that the spindle, usually horizontal, was now revolving in an upright position. This gave him the idea, and a short time afterwards he invented a machine with which one person could spin several threads at once. From it has been developed the complicated machinery for spinning used to-day.

3. Arkwright's Spinning-Jenny.—Sir Richard Arkwright invented, in 1771, a machine that accomplished the whole process of spinning, the worker merely feeding the machine and tying breaks in the thread. This machine was run by water-power, thus doing away with hand-power and allowing the operator to attend entirely to the spinning.

4. The "Mule."—In 1779, Crompton invented a "mule," by which threads of a finer and stronger quality could be spun.

5. The Power-Loom.— The spinners were now able to keep ahead of the weavers, till Cartwright invented, in 1785, a power-loom that enabled the weavers to work faster and use all the thread that the spinners could make.

6. The Steam-Engine.—These machines were run by hand or water-power. In 1785, Watts' steam-engine, invented several years before this, was used in the manufacture of cotton, and manufacturers were now able to use all the raw material they could get.

7. The Cotton-Gin.—Cotton had to be cleaned of its seeds before it could be sent to the factory. This had to be done by hand and greatly hindered the supply. A good deal of the raw cotton came from the United States and the planters there grew no more than could be cleaned and sold. In 1792, Eli Whitney, an American, invented the cotton-gin, by which the cotton could be cleaned of its seed very quickly. More cotton was then grown, and England was able to

get all she required to keep the factories working. (A sample of raw cotton containing the seeds will help to show by actual experience the need for this invention.)

8. Coal-Mining and Smelting.—These machines were made of iron, and coal was needed to run the engines and to smelt the iron. There was plenty of coal in England, but very little was mined until the steam pump was brought into use to keep the mines clear of water. When this was done, more men went to work in the mines to get out the greater amount of coal that was now needed. There was also plenty of iron ore in England, and before this it had been smelted by means of charcoal, which is made from wood. This slow and wasteful method was followed until Roebuck invented a process of smelting by coal, and thus made possible a plentiful supply of iron for the manufacture of the machines.

9. The Safety Lamp.— Coal-mining was a dangerous occupation, because of the fire-damp that is generated in mines. The open lamps used by the miners often caused this gas to explode and many men lost their lives thereby. To remedy this, Sir Humphrey Davy invented the safety lamp in 1815, which gave the miners the light they needed and prevented these explosions.

10. Transportation. —Now that there was so much manufacturing carried on, people turned their attention to ways of transporting the goods to where they were needed. The roads were generally wretched, and in many parts of the country goods had to be carried on the backs of horses, as the roads were not fit for wheels. Macadam, by using broken stone to form the road-crust or surface, brought about a great improvement in road-making.

Transportation by water was difficult by reason of the obstructions in rivers. To overcome these, canals were dug. The first one was made in 1761 between some coal-mines and the town of Manchester. Before 1800 many more were dug, and transportation became much easier.

11. Agriculture. — The number of people engaged in the factories was increasing and these could not grow their own food. This made it necessary for the farmers to increase their output. Farms became larger; better methods of cultivation were used; winter roots were grown, making it possible to raise better cattle; fertilizers were used in greater quantities, and the rotation of crops was introduced to prevent the exhaustion of the soil.

12. Social Conditions. — Out of the factory system grew the division of classes into capital and labour, the struggle between which is the great problem of to-day. It was then that labour unions came into existence.

We see, as a result of these inventions, that England was changed from an agricultural country to a land of large manufacturing cities, and became the chief manufacturing centre of the world, able to supply money to defeat Napoleon Bonaparte, who is credited with the statement that it was not England's armies that defeated him, but her "spindles."

Note: **This may be divided into as many lessons as the teacher wishes. The dates given are not intended to be memorized by the pupils; they are introduced simply to emphasize the order of the inventions. So as to emphasize the sequence at each step, the class may be asked what was the next invention needed. The oral method—pure narrative, and "development"—is supposed to be used.**

THE ROAD TO CATHAY

FORM III OR IV

The aim of the lesson is to show how the desire of certain European nations to find a western route to the rich countries of the East—India, Cathay, and Cipango (India, China, and Japan), led to the discovery and subsequent exploration of America—especially of North America.

One of the results of the Crusades was to reveal to the European nations the wealth of the East. Trade between the East and West grew, and Venice became one of the wealthiest and most powerful of the states of Europe.

In 1295, a Venetian traveller named Marco Polo returned from Cathay after an absence of twenty-five years. His stories of the wealth in silks, spices, pearls, etc., of those eastern countries intensified the desire of the West to trade with them. A great commerce soon grew up, carried on principally by the great Italian cities—Venice, Florence, Genoa, Pisa, Milan—and as these cities controlled the Mediterranean, the only route to Asia then known, they had a monopoly of the Eastern trade, and kept for a time the other western nations—Spain, Portugal, France, and England—from sharing in it. These nations, animated by the hope of gain and the spirit of adventure and exploration, could not long be denied their share. This spirit was stimulated by the introduction of the mariner's compass, which afforded sailors a safer guide than landmarks and stars; by the invention of gunpowder and the use of cannon, which, through lessening the strength of the mediæval castle, tended to increase the power of the middle classes; and by the invention of printing which aided greatly in the diffusion of knowledge.

The problem was to find a route by which to trade with India and China.

Place the map of the world before the pupils and inquire how men travel to-day from Great Britain to India. Show that these routes were not feasible then. The route through the Mediterranean to Asia Minor and thence overland to India was closed by the Turks, who captured Constantinople in 1453. The Suez Canal was not opened till 1869. The way round the Cape of Good Hope was not discovered till 1497. The route west across the Atlantic and the Pacific was unknown.

Not till the closing years of the fifteenth century were the attempts to solve this problem successful. The discovery of the route to India by Vasco de Gama in 1497 first opened the way to the East, though the still earlier discovery by Columbus was to afford, in later years, a much more complete solution.

Christopher Columbus was a native of Genoa in Italy. An eager student of geography, he became convinced that the earth was a sphere or globe and not a flat surface. He believed that he could reach India and Cathay by sailing west, as well as by going east through the Mediterranean—a route that had been closed since the capture of Constantinople by the Turks in 1453. "This grand idea, together with his services in carrying it out, he offered first to his mother-land of Genoa. But Genoa did not want a new route to the East. Then he turned, but in vain, to Portugal. The hopes of Portugal were set upon a passage around the south of Africa. To England and to France, Columbus held out his wondrous offer; but these countries were slow and unbelieving. It was to Spain he made his most persistent appeal; and Spain, to his imperishable glory, gave ear." Through the self-denial and devotion of Queen Isabella of Castile he was enabled to put his dream to the test.

A special lesson should be given on the life of Columbus—his efforts, perseverance, courage, failures, successes. Read Joaquin Miller's Poem *Columbus*, High School Reader, pp. 143-145.

When Columbus landed on the island-fringe of America in 1492, he thought he had found what he had set out to find—the eastern country of India. And he believed it all his life. This idea survived for several generations, partly because of the great wealth of Mexico and Peru. When Europeans were at last convinced that it was not India, they began again to seek a way to the East, and looked on the continent of America merely as an obstable in their path. To find the road to Cathay was still their chief ambition.

In 1497, John Cabot, under a charter from Henry VII of England, set out to find a way to the East and landed on North America; in 1498, his son, Sebastian Cabot, explored the coast from Labrador to South Carolina, with the same object.

In 1534, on his first voyage, Cartier thought, when he arrived at Gaspé, and saw the great river coming from the west, that he had discovered the gateway to the East.

With the same object in view, Champlain, in 1609, explored the Richelieu River and Lake Champlain. In 1613, he listened, only to be deceived, to the story of Vignau about a way to the East up the Ottawa River to a large lake and into another river that would lead to the Western Sea.

Henry Hudson made four voyages in search of a way through or round the continent. On the first, second, and fourth, he tried to go round by a North-west or a North-east passage. On the third voyage, in 1609, he sailed up the Hudson River for 150 miles, only to find his way blocked. A curious fact is that on this voyage he must, at one time, have been only about twenty leagues from Champlain, when the latter was exploring Lake Champlain on the same errand. On his fourth voyage, in 1610, Hudson discovered the bay that now bears his name, and he must have thought, when he saw that great stretch of water to the West, that he was at last successful. He wintered there and when the ice broke up in the spring, his men mutinied and set him, his young son, and two companions adrift in a boat and they were never heard of again. (See *The Story of the British People*, pp. 234-235).

The Mississippi was long looked upon as a possible way to the Pacific Ocean. La Salle explored the great lakes and the Ohio, Illinois, and Mississippi Rivers. This last he found to flow south into the Gulf of Mexico, instead of west into the Pacific Ocean. His settlement on Montreal Island was called *La Chine* (the French word for China), in allusion to his desire to find the way to that country.

Later, others were led by the same desire to explore the western part of what is now Canada. Vérendrye, in 1731, travelled from Lake Nepigon by way of Rainy Lake, the Winnipeg River, and the Red River to the junction of the latter with the Assiniboine, where Winnipeg now stands; also up the Saskatchewan River to the Forks. His son, in 1742, explored the Missouri River and came within sight of the Rocky Mountains.

Men of the Hudson Bay Company and of the North-west Company—MacKenzie, Fraser, Thompson, Simpson, Hearne—amid great hardships and through thrilling adventures, continued the work of exploring the waterways of the West, to find an opening to the Pacific.

It has remained to the people of Canada to conquer the passes of the Rockies and Selkirks, build great transcontinental railways and steamship lines, and thus afford a direct short route from Europe to Cathay. What men had striven for during more than four hundred years it has been our lot to accomplish.

METHOD

The subject-matter of the topic may be divided into as many lessons as the teacher thinks best, and the oral method should be used. All the dates given are not intended to be memorized; they are used to show the historical sequence; only three or four of the most important need be committed to memory by the class at their present stage.

This lesson is intended to show how, in the development of a topic, information must be collected from various sources and woven together.

THE FLAG

FORMS III AND IV

In itself a flag is "only a small bit of bunting"; it becomes a powerful aid to patriotism when it receives a meaning from its history. It is the emblem of a nation, the symbol of Sovereignty, and as such should have a prominent place in the education of the young. Children should be taught: (1) the history of the struggles and sacrifices of our forefathers in securing and maintaining our liberties; (2) the significance of the flag as standing for liberty, truth, and justice; and (3) its construction, with the special significance of each part.

The last point—the construction of the Union Jack—should be preceded by a series of lessons on the individual "jacks." These lessons should explain the significance of the term "jack"; the reasons for the selection of St. George as the patron saint of England, of St. Andrew as the patron saint of Scotland, and of St. Patrick as the patron saint of Ireland; and the reasons for the placing of the crosses on the jacks of the several countries.

These lessons should be taken as follows: that of the "jack" and "St. George" after a lesson on the Crusaders; of "St. Andrew" after the lesson on the Battle of Bannockburn; of "St. Patrick" after the lesson on the Conquest of Ireland by Strongbow.

The opposite course may be followed. The construction or drawing of the flag may be taken in connection with one of the flag-days; then the children will be interested in the work itself. The story of the jacks may be given afterwards in the history lessons.

As desk work following each lesson, the pupils should construct the flags, using coloured paper, and these flags should be kept for use in the final lesson. The following sizes may be used in oblong flags:

For St. George's—white ground—2½ in. x 5 in., red cross ½ in.
For St. Andrew's—blue ground—2½ in. x 5 in., white cross ½ in.
For St. Patrick's—white ground—2½ in. x 5 in., red cross ⅓ in.

When the story of the union of the crowns of England and Scotland in the reign of James I has been taught in the class, the pupils should be asked to attempt the problem of uniting the two flags into one. For this purpose the flags formerly made can be used. The flag of England will surmount that of Scotland, and in order that the flag of Scotland may be seen, the white ground of the flag of England must be removed, only a narrow border of white along each arm being retained to represent the ground colour. This narrow border on each side is one third of the width of the red cross.

The final lesson, the construction of the Union Jack of our day, should be given on Empire Day or a few days before. As an introduction the teacher should review the flag of each country in the union, referring also to the Union Jacks of James and of Anne. The problem of uniting the Irish Jack with the other two might be given the pupils; but as they are not likely to succeed in solving it, it will be better for the teacher to place before them the Union Jack belonging to the school and to lead them to observe:

(1) that it is usually oblong—twice as long as wide; (it may also be square);
(2) that the St. Andrew's Cross is partially covered by the St. Patrick's;
(3) that the St. George's Cross, as before, one fifth of the width of the jack;
(4) that along the side of the St. Patrick's Cross is a strip of white;
(5) that this strip of white and the red of the St. Patrick's equal the broad white of the St. Andrew's;
(6) that the broad white of the St. Andrew's is partly white cross and partly white ground;
(7) that the broad white of the St. Andrew's is uppermost on the parts near the staff.

When these have been noted, the pupils are ready to unite the flags which they had formerly made. The teacher directs them to cut away all of the white ground and half of each arm of the St. Patrick's Cross, retaining the centre. This should then be pasted upon the St. Andrew's Cross as in the Union Jack. They next cut away all of the white ground of the St. George's Cross, except the border (one third of the red), and paste this above the other two. The result will be a correctly made jack, and the pupils will know the several stages in its growth.

Where it is not possible to conduct the series of lessons, as above, the following method is suggested. The pupils are provided with white paper and red and blue crayons, and are led to make, as above, a study of the jack belonging to the school. The following directions are then given:

First line in with a ruler the dimensions of the flag, say five inches wide and ten inches long. Draw the diagonals in faint lines. Place the cross of St. George and its border upon the flag according to the measurements mentioned, that is the cross one inch wide and the border one third of an inch wide. The diagonals will be the centre and dividing lines of the crosses of St. Andrew and St. Patrick. Now place the saltire crosses according to the measurements. The white arm of St. Andrew's cross will be one half inch in width, the white border of St. Patrick's cross one sixth of an inch wide, and the red cross of St. Patrick one third of an inch wide. The red cross of St. Patrick is placed touching the diagonal, below in the first and third quarters, and above in the second and fourth quarters. Great care must be exercised in making the drawing of the Union Jack.

Its base is the cross of St. George, red on a white ground. On the political union of England and Scotland in 1707, the cross of St. Andrew, which is a white diagonal cross on a blue ground, was added, and to this Union flag there was joined in 1801 the cross of St. Patrick, a red diagonal cross on a white ground. The colours of the Union Jack are red, which is the emblem of courage; white, the emblem of purity; and blue, the emblem of truth; so that we cannot do anything cowardly without disgracing our flag.

On memorial days the teacher, as he describes the past events that have helped to make our country strong and keep it free, may well refer to the colours of the flag as reminders of the virtues on which our Empire rests.

For memorial days the following subjects, among others, are suggested:

March 14. Founding of Upper Canada—Constitutional Act, 1791
The School day immediately preceding May 24.—Empire Day
May 24. Victoria Day
June 3. The King's Birthday
July 1. Dominion Day—Confederation of the Provinces
September 13. Battle of the Plains of Abraham
October 13. Battle of Queenston Heights—Death of Sir Isaac Brock
December 24. Close of War of 1812-1814

Other days commemorating events connected with various localities may also be chosen.

For information respecting the Flag, teachers are referred to Barlow Cumberland's *History of the Union Jack* (latest edition), to the *Flag Charts* by Mrs. Fessenden, and to *The Flag of Canada*, by Sir Joseph Pope.

THE COLOURS OF THE FLAG

What is the blue on our flag, boys?
The waves of the boundless sea,
Where our vessels ride in their tameless pride,
And the feet of the winds are free;
From the sun and smiles of the coral isles
To the ice of the South and North,
With dauntless tread through tempests dread
The guardian ships go forth.

What is the white on our flag boys?
The honour of our land,
Which burns in our sight like a beacon light
And stands while the hills shall stand;
Yea, dearer than fame is our land's great name,
And we fight, wherever we be,
For the mothers and wives that pray for the lives
Of the brave hearts over the sea.

What is the red on our flag, boys?
The blood of our heroes slain,
On the burning sands in the wild waste lands
And the froth of the purple main;
And it cries to God from the crimsoned sod
And the crest of the waves outrolled,
That He send us men to fight again
As our fathers fought of old.

We'll stand by the dear old flag, boys,
Whatever be said or done,
Though the shots come fast, as we face the blast,
And the foe be ten to one—
Though our only reward be the thrust of a sword
And a bullet in heart or brain.
What matters one gone, if the flag float on
And Britain be Lord of the main!

Frederick George Scott

THE UNION JACK

It's only a small piece of bunting,
It's only an old coloured rag;
Yet thousands have died for its honour,
And shed their best blood for the flag.

It's charged with the cross of St. Andrew,
Which, of old, Scotland's heroes has led;
It carries the cross of St. Patrick,
For which Ireland's bravest have bled.

Joined with these is our old English ensign,
St. George's red cross on white field;
Round which, from Richard to Roberts,
Britons conquer or die, but ne'er yield.

It flutters triumphant o'er ocean,
As free as the wind and the waves;
And bondsmen from shackles unloosened,
'Neath its shadows no longer are slaves.

It floats o'er Australia, New Zealand,
O'er Canada, the Indies, Hong Kong;
And Britons, where'er their flag's flying,
Claim the rights which to Britons belong.

We hoist it to show our devotion,
To our King, our country, and laws;
It's the outward and visible emblem,
Of progress and liberty's cause.

You may say it's an old bit of bunting,
You may call it an old coloured rag;
But freedom has made it majestic,
And time has ennobled our flag.

LESSON ON THE FEUDAL SYSTEM

(As many lesson periods as may be found desirable)

FORM IV

Aim.—To give the pupils a knowledge of the manner in which land was held, (1) by the Saxons at different periods on the continent and in England; (2) by the French; (3) by the Normans under William the Conqueror, showing the changes he made in both Saxon and French systems.

STEP I

1. **Introduction.**—By questioning, the teacher elicits from one pupil that his father owns a farm; from another, that his father rents a farm; from a third that his father works one "on shares." From this may be derived the meaning of "freehold," "leasehold," and "on shares," as applied to ways of holding land. For town and city classes, a parallel may be made by substituting "house" for "farm." As holding property "on shares" is not common in cities, suggest possible cases, such as a florist's business, a rink, etc.

2. Let pupils read the sketch of the Saxon or "mark system" given in the *Public School History of England,* pp. 20 and 30; and then draw a plan of a Saxon village from the passages read.

STEP II

1. *The Saxon System*: Further study of the early land tenure of the Saxons (see Green's *Short History of the English People,* pp. 12-13, and 54-56); the origin of the names "Eorl" and "Thegn"; the idea of protection and of

sharing in the produce of the land, and the payment of necessary fees to the king. Emphasize the ownership of the land by the freeman.

2. *The Courts*: The *Witan,* which could displace the king for certain reasons, the *Shire* or *folk-moot,* and the *tun-moot;* their powers; the people looked to these courts for justice.

3. *Change* brought about by Danish raids—small freeholders sought protection from the greater lords; the shifting of ownership from small landowners to "eorls".

The Feudal System in France.—(Read Scott's *Quentin Durward*) Barons too powerful for king for various reasons:

1. Their property was large and compact.
2. They administered justice, issued coinage, etc.
3. Vassals swore allegiance to their immediate superior.

By means of problem-questions develop from the pupils what William would likely do, to strengthen his own position.

STEP IV

The Feudal System under William:

1. The land belonged solely to the king; it was not the Normans as a tribe but William personally who conquered England.

2. The estates of the nobles were divided, whether deliberately or because the land was conquered piecemeal and parcelled out as it was conquered. (For example, Odo had 473 manors in 17 counties).

3. The vassals swore direct allegiance to the king.

4. The Witan was displaced by the Great Council, the members of which were the king's vassals; therefore with him, not against him.

5. The king's use of shire-reeves, personal dependants, who led the military levy of the counties and collected the king's taxes.

6. What were the chief taxes? From them came much political trouble in later times by attempts to rectify abuses in connection with them.

7. The teacher may describe the ceremony of the feudal oath.

The important points of each step should be written on the black-board as they are described or developed.

SEIGNIORIAL TENURE

FORM IV

The aim of the lesson is to give the pupils a knowledge of the method of land tenure introduced into Canada by the French; to enable them to trace the effects of this system upon the progress of the people and the development of the country; and to increase their interest in the present system of tenure.

1. Introduce this subject by a reference to the system of holding land in Ontario. (See lesson on the Feudal System.) Develop the leading principles of Freehold tenure. What Act gave the people of Ontario this method of holding land? We are going to learn something about the system of holding land adopted by the French when they ruled Canada. (See *Ontario Public School History* Chapter IX.)

2. Under the French the lands of Canada were held in feudal tenure; which means that the King was regarded as the owner, and that rent was paid to him, not in money, but in military service. Large portions of land were granted in this way to officers and nobles. An important and imposing ceremony was that at which the lords of manors annually did homage to the King's representative at Quebec. These *seigniors* as they were called, had great powers within their domains. This method of tenure was similar to the system of holding land in France, called the Feudal System.

At this point the teacher might give a short description of the Feudal system. Picture to the pupils the old Feudal castle and its surroundings. Show how ill the common people were provided for in comparison with the lords.

3. Cardinal Richelieu introduced feudalism into Canada about the year 1527. He had two objects in view,—(*a*) to create a Canadian aristocracy, (*b*) to establish an easy system of dividing land among settlers. This system of holding land came to be known as Seignioral Tenure. The seignior received vast tracts of land from the King, became his vassal, and in turn made grants to the *censitaires,* those who held their land on the payment of an annual rental. The censitaires secured *habitants* to cultivate the soil.

4. The seignior was compelled to clear his estate of forest within a certain time. In order to do this he rented it, at from half a cent to two cents an acre, and received his rent in produce. If the censitaire sold the land which was cleared, he had to pay his seignior one twelfth of the price. If the seignior parted with his estate, he had to pay the King one fifth of the selling price. The forests of Canada were not very attractive to the nobles of France; hence, but few of them settled in this country. Some of the prominent colonists, however, were granted patents of nobility and became seigniors. Prevented by their rank from cultivating the soil, they soon became bankrupt. Then they turned their attention to the fur-trade, and later many of them became explorers and the most gallant defenders of New France.

5. In the year 1760, Canada became a British possession, and English settlers commenced to make homes for themselves in Upper Canada. Their number was greatly increased by the United Empire Loyalists who came over after the American Revolution. The English disliked the French method of holding land. Under Seignioral Tenure, the purchaser of land in a seigniory was compelled to pay the seignior an amount equal to one twelfth of the purchase money, in addition to the full sum paid to the seller. As this was chargeable not only on the value of the land, but also on the value of all buildings and improvements, which, costing the seigniors nothing, were often more valuable than the land itself, it was considered by the English settlers an intolerable handicap. (Centuries before this the Feudal System had been abolished in England.)

6. In 1791 the British Parliament passed the Constitutional Act which gave the people of Upper Canada the privilege of holding lands in their own name. In Lower Canada, too, those who wished were allowed to avail themselves of the freehold system, but the French did not take advantage of their opportunity. In the year 1854 Seignioral Tenure was abolished, the Government recompensing the seigniors for the surrender of their ancient rights and privileges, and freehold tenure, as in Ontario, was introduced.

7. Reasons why the Seignorial Tenure failed:

(*a*) It was not adapted to conditions in Canada.

(*b*) It did not provide sufficient incentive to settlers to improve their lands.
(*c*) It gave the *habitant* a poor opportunity.
(*d*) It tended to divide the population into three classes.
(*e*) It failed to develop a civic spirit. This fact alone made progress practically impossible. Each seignior was the master of his own domain. Thus the people had no opportunity of working together, and under such circumstances no great national spirit could be developed.

8. Note the effect of the conquest of Canada, and of the American Revolution upon Seigniorial Tenure.

THE NEW LEARNING

FORM IV

1. The aim of this lesson is to make the pupils familiar with one of the most important movements in English history, by having them study the meaning, causes, tendencies, and effects of the New Learning.

2. As an introduction, a lesson or two should be given on the conditions prevailing in Europe during the latter part of the middle ages, because a knowledge of these conditions is essential to a right understanding of many of the causes of the New Learning.

The New Learning was a phase of a greater movement called the Renaissance, which arose in Italy during the fourteenth century. The Renaissance marked the end of the middle ages and the beginning of modern history. It meant re-birth, a new life. People took a new interest in living. The influence of the monk and of the knight was passing, and the man of affairs, with his broader sympathies, his keener vision, his more varied interests, and his love of liberty, was coming into prominence.

How to enjoy life, how to get the greatest value out of it, became the great problem. In their attempt to solve this problem people turned their attention to the ancient literature of Greece and Rome; for it was believed that the ancient Greeks and Romans had a fine appreciation of the meaning and beauty of life. They began to seek out the old literature and to study it. This new study has been called the Revival of Learning or the New Learning. The influence of these two great literatures soon made itself felt. Every province of knowledge was investigated and people everywhere were influenced by this great intellectual awakening.

3. The following were the chief causes of the movement:
(*a*) The Crusades
(*b*) The Fall of Constantinople, 1453
(*c*) The introduction of the mariner's compass
(*d*) The invention of gunpowder
(*e*) The invention of the printing press
(*f*) The overthrow of the Feudal System
(*g*) The desire for knowledge stimulated by the universities
(*h*) The failure of the schools of the middle ages to meet the demands and needs of the times

4. The relation of each of these causes to the New Learning must be shown. In dealing with the Crusade movement as a cause, it will be necessary to help the children to see the effect produced on the people of northern Europe by their coming into contact with the more highly cultivated people in southern Europe; and the effect produced on the people of Europe by their mingling with the nations of the luxurious East—the Greeks of Constantinople and the brilliant Mohammedan scholars of Palestine. The Crusades made the people dissatisfied with the conditions that had prevailed so long in Europe, and this fact alone gave an impetus to the New Learning.

The relation of printing to the spread of the movement is evident. The introduction of printing meant the cheapening of books, their more general use, and the spread of education. This was followed by a growing independence of thought, and a desire for greater political and religious freedom.

The other causes may be similarly treated.

5. The New Learning was represented in England by a group of scholars of whom Erasmus, Colet, and More were the chief. The great churchmen too were its patrons. Men of every rank were interested, and the movement affected the whole life of the people. A new interest was taken in education, in art, in religion, and in social reform. Old methods of instruction were superseded by more rational ones. Hundreds of new schools were established for the benefit of the middle classes. The whole tendency of the New Learning was toward a higher intellectual and more moral life.

6. Its effects:

(*a*) It awakened a desire for an intellectual life and for social reform;

(*b*) It made possible the Reformation;

(*c*) It led to the establishment of schools and libraries and to the extension of the usefulness of the universities;

(*d*) It aroused the desire for liberty and the spirit of enterprise, and encouraged commercial activity;

(*e*) It inspired some of the world's greatest artists in painting, sculpture, architecture, literature, and music.

(*f*) It implanted the seeds of freedom of thought and fostered the spirit of scientific research;

(*g*) It supplied higher ideals of life and conduct, a fact which became responsible to a large extent for the great improvement made in the condition of the people, and in the development of Europe since that time.

Note: References to the discoveries made by Copernicus, Columbus, and the Cabots should be made. Pupils should read or hear short accounts of Erasmus, More, and Colet. A careful development of the causes and meaning of the movement should aid the pupils to anticipate its chief results.

It is assumed, of course, that the study of this topic will occupy several lesson periods.

CONFEDERATION OF CANADIAN PROVINCES

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

I. Causes:

1. The idea of union an old one in Canada and the maritime provinces; foreshadowed in Durham's Report.

2. Immediate cause in Canada was the question of representation by population; deadlock in Parliament.

3. Immediate cause in Maritime Provinces was the feeling between Britain and the Colonies and the United States over the Trent Affair, the Alabama trouble, and the idea in the Northern States that the British Colonies favoured the cause of the South in the Civil War.

II. Steps toward Confederation :

1. Meeting of delegates from the maritime provinces in Charlottetown in 1864.

2. Meeting in Quebec, 1864, of delegates from all the provinces favours Confederation.

3. Newfoundland and Prince Edward Island reject the proposal, and delegates from Upper Canada (Ontario), Lower Canada (Quebec), Nova Scotia and New Brunswick proceed to London to secure an Act of Union from the Imperial Government.

4. Movement in favour of union hastened by United States giving notice in 1865 of the termination of the Reciprocity Treaty in a year, and by the Fenian Raid, 1866.

5. Union accomplished by means of the British North America Act passed by the British Parliament in 1867, and brought into force on July 1st, 1867. The provinces confederated as the Dominion of Canada; a Federal Union.

III. Outline of Terms :

See *Ontario Public School History of Canada,* p. 215. Provision made for admission of new provinces.

IV. Expansion of Confederation :

Admission of other provinces—Manitoba, 1870; British Columbia, 1871; Prince Edward Island, 1873; Alberta and Saskatchewan, 1905; Yukon territory also represented in the Dominion Parliament.

NOTES OF A LESSON ON THE INFLUENCE OF GEOGRAPHICAL CONDITIONS ON THE HISTORY OF A COUNTRY

Form IV.

GENERAL

The history of a nation is influenced quite largely by geographical facts. Its internal relations, whether friendly or hostile, are affected by these. Natural barriers, such as mountains, seas, or great lakes and rivers, are often political frontiers exerting protecting or isolating influences.

Its industrial progress depends primarily upon its natural products—minerals, grains, woods, fish, etc., and the facilities which its structure affords for trade, both domestic and foreign. A sea-coast, with satisfactory harbours, tends to produce a sea-faring people, and therefore a trading people.

The character of its people is conditioned by the zone in which the nation is situated. In the north temperate zone is the climate best suited for the growth of peoples vigorous in mind and body, and lovers of freedom.

ENGLAND

Position: The forming of the Straits of Dover cut off a corner of Europe, made Great Britain an island, and later a single political unit. Situated between Europe and America with ports opening toward each, her position gives her the opportunity for naval and commercial greatness. The narrow sea separating her from the continent is a defence in war and a means of intercourse in peace.

Structure: Two regions—one of plain, the other of hills: a line drawn from the mouth of the Tees to the mouth of the Severn and continued to the south coast roughly divides these regions. The part lying east of this line is, roughly speaking, level and fertile, tempting emigration from the continent, and easily explored inward. The Angles, the Saxons, and the Jutes found their way into this plain through the rivers that flowed east and south. The Pennines, the Welsh Peninsula, and the southwest of England from Bristol are in the hilly part, which, because of its mineral wealth, has become the great industrial district.

Climate: Though England lies north of the fiftieth parallel, the moist southwest winds from the ocean temper the climate, making the winters mild and the summers cool, a climate favorable to the growth of a vigorous race. There is an abundant rainfall.

Products: On the plains a fertile soil supported a large agricultural, and therefore self-contained, population in the earlier days, and the slopes furnished pasturage for cattle and sheep. Proximity to coal is an almost indispensable condition for industries, though other considerations come in. In the hill country coal and iron, essential materials for a manufacturing nation, lie near to the deposits of limestone necessary for smelting the iron ore. The coal-fields on or near the coast are centres of shipbuilding; and the interior coal-fields the centres of the great textile industries. Because of her insular position and fleets of ships the raw products from other countries can be brought to England easily and cheaply, and then shipped out as manufactured goods.

Consult: *A Historical Geography of the British Empire.* Hereford B. George, Methuen & Co., London. *The Relations of Geography and History.* Hereford B. George, Clarendon Press, Oxford.

ST. LAWRENCE RIVER

FORM IV

Aim.—To show the correlation between history and geography.

Material Required.—A black-board sketch of that part of Canada adjacent to the St. Lawrence and a set of pictures (or picture post cards) showing the important historical sites along the banks of the river.

Introduction. — The teacher asks a few questions to make clear the purpose of the map and to fix the location of the principal towns and cities—Kingston, Brockville, Prescott, Ogdensburg, Morrisburg, Cornwall, Lachine, Montreal, Three Rivers, Levis, Quebec, Tadousac, and Gaspé.

Presentation.—The lesson is assumed to be a pleasure trip by boat from Port Hope to the Atlantic. The teacher will tell of the departure from Port Hope and the arrival at Kingston, the first port. While there, he will ask why the place was given the name of Kingston. (It was named in honour of George III; as Queenston, at the upper end of the lake, was in honour of Queen Charlotte). Leaving Kingston the teacher will describe (showing pictures) the appearance of the fort on the point and, with the pupils, will recall its establishment by Frontenac in 1673, and its use as a check on the Indians, and will note its use now as a store-house, barracks, and training camp for soldiers. (*Ontario Public School History*, pp. 51, 114.)

As the trip is continued down the river, they note in passing the beautiful Thousand Islands, and the town of Brockville—its name commemorating the hero of Queenston Heights. Immediately below Prescott is seen on the bank of the river an old wind-mill, the scene of the Patriot invasion under Von Schultz, a Polish adventurer. (See *Ontario Public School History*, p. 178, and picture in Weaver's *Canadian History for Boys and Girls*, p. 227.)

Across the river lies Ogdensburg, the scene of a raid in 1813. Colonel Macdonell, the British leader, who was drilling his small force on the ice, made a sudden attack upon the town, defeated the Americans, captured a large amount of stores and ammunition, and burned four armed vessels which lay in the harbour. (See *Ontario Public School History*, p. 155.)

From this point the boat passes rapidly through the narrow part of the river at Iroquois (recall the Indians of that name), past the flourishing town of Morrisburg, until, on the north bank, appears a monument of gray granite, erected as a memorial of the battle of Crysler's Farm, fought in this vicinity in 1813. (See *Ontario Public School History*, p. 159.)

After passing through the Long Sault Rapids (refer to the attempt to dam these for power purposes), Cornwall, noted as the seat of the first Grammar School in Ontario, is reached. The river now widens into a lake and does not narrow until it passes Coteau, after which it passes through a chain of rapids and nears Lachine, the "la Chine" of La Salle, and the scene of numerous Indian fights and massacres. (See *Ontario School Geography*, p. 116, and *Ontario Public School History of Canada*, p. 60.) Ten miles to the east is Montreal, the most populous city in Canada, with its Royal Mount, and its many memories of early settlement in Canada. (See *Ontario School Geography*, p. 121.)

Just above Quebec the river, now two miles wide, passes the bold cliffs up which Wolfe's men climbed to the Plains of Abraham, and sweeps around the Citadel and Lower Town. On the heights may be seen the monuments erected in honour of Champlain, and Wolfe and Montcalm. In imagination, pictures may be formed of the scenes that marked the close of French Rule in Canada. The river flows on past Tadousac, long the centre of the Canadian fur trade, past Gaspé where Cartier landed and laid claim to the surrounding country in the name of the king of France, on till its banks fade from sight and its waters mingle with those of the Atlantic.

In teaching such lessons as this, the oral narrative and question method is used. It is a review lesson, and reproduction may follow in a written exercise.

THE RELATIONS BETWEEN ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND FROM 1066 TO 1603

FORM IV

The purpose of this analysis is to explain by what show of right the kings of England interfered so much in Scottish affairs.

1. In the tenth century, Malcolm I obtained Strathclyde (see map, *Ontario Public School History of England,* p. 27) as a fief from Edmund of England. His grandson, Malcolm II, was invested with Lothian, before this a part of the English earldom of Northumbria. These fiefs are the basis of all claims afterwards made by English kings as overlords of Scotland.

2. Malcolm III (1057-1093) married Margaret, sister of Edgar Atheling. The Norman conquest drove many Saxons north, and the Saxon element in Scotland was strengthened by this.

3. William the Conqueror compelled Malcolm's submission, 1072. This kept alive the English claims.

4. Henry I married Matilda of Scotland. Many Normans went to Scotland in the reign of David (1124-1153). The Feudal System was introduced and firmly established under Norman influence. Ecclesiastical foundation begun. Friendly relations strengthened.

5. As the price of his liberty, William the Lyon agreed, by the Convention of Falaise, 1174, to hold Scotland as a fief of England.

6. To raise money for his Crusade, Richard I of England renounced, in 1189, his feudal rights over Scotland for 10,000 marks, and for the first time acknowledged her independence.

7. The border line was fixed for the first time in 1222.

8. The death of Margaret, daughter of Alexander III, 1286, left the crown a bone of contention; Baliol finally secured it by favour of Edward I of England, the overlord of Scotland. Then followed the War of Independence under Wallace and Bruce and the Battle of Bannockburn, 1314. This long and destructive war caused the Scots to have a deadly hatred of the English, and drove Scotland into alliance with France, the great enemy of England, and consolidated the different races in Scotland.

9. Scotland thus became involved in the many wars between England and France and attacked England whenever she and France were at war.

10. In 1327, the Independence of Scotland was acknowledged.

11. Friendship with France and distrust of England continued well into the Reformation period and, in the main, determined Scotland's foreign policy.

12. With the change of religion in Scotland at the Reformation, French influence came to an end. Religious sympathy overcame the political hatred of England.

13. The trouble in connection with Mary, Queen of Scots, and her imprisonment made for peace between the two countries, as Scotland did not want to have Mary released for fear of further civil war.

14. The accession of James VI, a Scottish king, to the throne of England, ended almost entirely the differences between the two countries.

ANALYSIS OF SECTIONS 160-170, ONTARIO PUBLIC SCHOOL HISTORY OF ENGLAND

FORM IV

The Parliament had already established its sole right to levy taxation. (See Green's *Short History of the English People,* p. 478.) Under Charles I the struggle was mainly about the manner in which the taxes should be spent; in other words, the Parliament was trying to secure control of the executive, the other important element in Responsible Government.

Charles I held very strongly the belief in the "divine right" of kings and, naturally, this belief did not harmonize with the aim of Parliament. Disputes were constant:

1. Differences concerning Charles' marriage.

2. First Parliament, 1626, would grant "tonnage and poundage" for only one year.

3. Second Parliament, 1626, refused money unless the conduct of the Spanish war by Buckingham was inquired into by Parliament.

4. Third Parliament, 1628-9. Charles raised some money by "forced loans," but far too little, for a new war with France was begun. Parliament refused to grant money till the king signed the Petition of Right, which embodied all the points in dispute between them.

5. Charles did not long observe the Petition of Rights which he had signed; Laud, Bishop of London, was making changes in the church ceremonies that seemed to bring back the old religion. Parliament solemnly protested against both these things, then quietly adjourned. Some members were arrested—Sir John Eliot died in the Tower—others were kept in prison for eleven years.

6. No Parliament for eleven years. Charles aimed during this period to raise money without Parliament, and to establish the English Church in the whole country.

His methods of raising money were:

(*a*) By granting monopolies (£200,000)

(*b*) By Star Chamber fines—large fines for slight offences

(*c*) By illegal duties

(*d*) By "ship-money" (Trial of Hampden)

His methods of establishing the English Church were:

(*a*) Religious oppression—chief agent, Laud; chief sufferers, the Puritans.

(*b*) Attempt to force the English Church prayer-book on Scotland led to rebellion.

(*c*) This rebellion forced Charles to summon Parliament in order to raise money.

Parliament refused to give money till their grievances were redressed. It was dissolved in three weeks. Urgent need of troops to keep back the Scottish rebels made Charles summon Parliament again in six months (1640). This is known as the "Long Parliament."

7. (*a*) Parliament first accused Laud and Strafford.

(*b*) The "Grand Remonstrance" named the illegal acts of Charles.

(*c*) This led to Charles' final blunder—the attempt to arrest the five members.

8. Open war, now the only way out, went on till Charles was captured and beheaded, and Parliament held, for a time, entire control.

THE FIGHT FOR CONSTITUTIONAL LIBERTY IN CANADA

(1759-1867)

FORM IV

In the struggle for constitutional liberty in British Canada, there are several distinct stages:

I. 1760 to 1763—Military Rule:

1. Amherst the nominal governor. Canada divided into three districts.

2. Little disturbance of French customs; the *habitants* content.

3. Influx of "old" subjects—their character. (See *Ontario Public School History of Canada,* p. 109; *History of Canada,* Lucas and Egerton, Part II, pp. 4 and 7.)

II. 1763 to 1774 (Quebec Act):

1. Period of Civil Government under General Murray.
2. Unrest owing to demands of the "old" subjects.
3. Conditions of government:
   (*a*) Governor and Advisory Council of twelve all appointed by Crown.
   (*b*) Assembly permitted but not feasible; depended on will of Governor.
   (*c*) British law, both civil and criminal, prevailed.
   (*d*) All money matters in hands of Council.
4. At this time the French greatly outnumbered the British, and the fear of the Revolution of the American Colonies led to the French being favoured in the Quebec Act, 1774.

III. 1774 to 1791—Quebec Act to Constitutional Act:

1. Both "old" and "new" subjects dissatisfied—the French with British Court procedure, the British with French feudal customs.
2. Provisions of the Quebec Act:
   (*a*) Change of boundaries (See text-book).
   (*b*) Governor and Legislative Council appointed; no assembly called.
   (*c*) French Civil Law; British Criminal Law.
   (*d*) No oath required, as before, hostile to the Roman Catholic Church—beginning of religious liberty.
   (*e*) Legislative Council had no control of taxation.

IV. 1791 to 1841—Constitutional Act to Act of Union.

Provisions of Constitutional Act:

1. Upper and Lower Canada divided, because French and British could not agree in many points.
2. Each Province had a Governor, a Legislative Council, a Legislative Assembly, and an Executive Council. The Legislative Council was composed of the highest officials, appointed practically for life, and responsible to no one. Many of these were also members of the Executive Council. The Legislative Assembly was elected and was yet without control of the whole revenue, as the Home Government still collected "all duties regulating colonial navigation and commerce."
3. The Clergy Reserves were established; later to become a bone of contention.

V. 1841 to 1867—Act of Union to British North America Act.

The demands of the people for responsible government, that is, for control of the Executive and of taxation, became so insistent that the Act of Union was passed, following Lord Durham's report on the Rebellion of 1837.

Provisions of the Act of Union:

1. Legislative Council Appointed (20 members).
2. Legislative Assembly elected (42 from each Province, later 65 from each).
3. Executive Council selected from both Houses.
4. A permanent Civil List of £75,000 was granted.
5. The Legislative Assembly controlled the rest of the revenue. Money bills were to originate with the Government. This was really Responsible Government, as it was developed under Elgin.

VI. 1867 to the present.

The British North America Act was the statement of a complete victory of the people for Responsible Government. The Executive Council (Cabinet) is wholly responsible to Parliament, in which the members of the Executive must have seats; the raising and the spending of revenue is wholly in the hands of the people's representatives. For a clear summary of the concessions won by Canadians, see Bourinot, *How Canada is Governed,* page 34; see also *Ontario Public School History of Canada,* pp. 267 et seq.

DEVICES

Maps.—

1. Wall maps for general study, especially of modern history.
2. Outline or sketch maps drawn on the black-board by the teacher or the pupils; for use in the study of earlier history, or explorations, etc. For these purposes the details of a wall map are not only not needed, but are rather a hindrance.
3. Relief maps of plasticine or clay to be made by the pupils to illustrate the influence of geographical facts in history, and to make events in history more real to the pupils.

Pictures.—

1. Many good historical pictures of persons, buildings, monuments, and events may be collected by the pupils and the teacher from magazines and newspapers and pasted in a scrap-book.
2. The Perry Picture Co., Malden, Mass., publish pictures in different sizes from one cent upward. Many of these are useful in the teaching of history. Similar pictures may be obtained from Mumford & Co., Chicago, Ill.
3. Good picture post cards can be easily obtained.
4. Lantern slides and stereopticon views may be used.

Museums.—

These often contain relics of earlier times in the form of implements, utensils, weapons, dress. A visit to one will interest the pupils.

Books.—

Some source books for illustrating earlier conditions in Ontario are:

1. *The Talbot Régime.* By Charles Oakes Ermatinger, St. Thomas.
2. *Pioneer Days.* By David Kennedy, Port Elgin. Sold by Author, 50c.
3. *United Empire Loyalists.* By Egerton Ryerson. William Briggs, Toronto.
4. *Canadian Constitutional Development,* selected speeches and dispatches, 1766-1867. By Egerton and Grant. Murray. $3.00.

Genealogical Tables.—

Those needed to illustrate special periods may be found in the larger histories. Pupils should be instructed how to interpret them.

Chronological Chart.—

This may be made by the class, on the black-board or on a slate cloth as the work advances. On the left hand of a vertical line are set down the dates, allowing the same space for each ten years, the close of each decade being shown in larger figures. On the right side set down the events in their proper place. For example, in studying the career of Champlain, the Chart will be begun as follows:

CHAMPLAIN

1600
1603 First visit, when 36 years old, with Pontgravé.
1604 With De Monts and Poutrincourt, he undertakes to colonize Acadia; formed a settlement at Port Royal.
1608 Founds Quebec.
1609 Explores Richelieu River and Lake Champlain; forms an alliance with the Hurons and Algonquins against the Iroquois.

1610 Marriage.
1611 Establishes a trading station at what is now Montreal.
1613 Ascends the Ottawa River, expecting to find the way to China; deceived, returns to France.
1615 Brings out the Recollet Fathers to Christianize the Indians; explores the country of the Hurons.

1620

Note-books and Class Exercises :

In the Fourth Form, pupils should copy into a note-book the black-board work —topical outlines, time chart, etc., as a basis for review and for class exercises in composition. Such a topical summary, the joint work of teacher and class, is the best means of review for examination purposes, when one is held.

Pupils may occasionally be asked to make from the text-book, without preceding class work, a topical analysis either of a subject which is treated consecutively in the book, such as the War of 1812-14, or of a subject that requires the pupil to collect his material from various parts of the book, or even from several books. In the latter case the teacher should direct the pupil to the proper sources.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

A. FOR TEACHERS

I. *Histories*:

(*a*) English:

1. A Short History of the English People. Green. $1.50. The Macmillan Company of Canada, Ltd., Toronto.
2. Ontario High School History of England. The Macmillan Company of Canada, Ltd., 65c.

(*b*) Canadian:

1. A History of Canada. Roberts. $1.00. The Macmillan Company of Canada, Ltd., Toronto.
2. Story of Canada (Story of the Nation Series). Bourinot. $1.50. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York.

3. A Historical Geography of the British Colonies, 10 Vols. Canada: Part I., $1.60; Part II., $1.10. Lucas and Egerton, Clarendon Press, Oxford.

One of the best histories of Canada; on a geographical basis

(*c*) Civics:

1. Canadian Civics. Jenkins. 30c. Copp Clark Company, Ltd., Toronto.
2. How Canada is Governed. Bourinot. $1.00. Copp Clark Company, Ltd., Toronto.

(*d*) General History:

1. General Sketch of European History. Freeman. $1.00. The Macmillan Company of Canada, Ltd., Toronto.
2. History of Our Own Times. McCarthy. $1.25. Crowell and Company, New York.
3. Nineteenth Century—A History. Mackenzie. $1.00. T. Nelson and Sons, London and Edinburgh.

For help in preparing lessons every teacher should possess one history of each of the above classes, in addition to the Ontario Public School Histories.

II. *On Methods*:

1. Teaching of History and Civics in the Elementary and Secondary Schools. Bourne. $1.50. Longmans Green and Co., London.

The best book on general method

2. Methods in History. Mace. $1.00. Ginn and Company, New York.
3. Special Method in History. McMurray. 75c. The Macmillan Company of Canada, Ltd., Toronto.

B. MATERIAL FOR CLASS WORK, ESPECIALLY IN CORRELATED SUBJECTS

1. Reader's Guide to English History. Allen. 25c. Ginn and Company, New York.

(Contains a list of historical authorities for the various periods; and lists of historical poems and fiction to illustrate these periods.)

2. School Atlas of English History. S. R. Gardiner. $1.50. Longmans Green and Company, London, England.
3. Atlas of Canada. Published by Department of the Interior, Ottawa.

C. HISTORICAL READERS AND SUPPLEMENTARY BOOKS

Group I.

1. Highroads of History. 10 Vols. T. Nelson and Sons, London and Edinburgh.

Well illustrated; a great favourite with children

2. Gateways to History. 7 Vols. 9s. 1d. Edward Arnold, London, England.
3. Longmans' Ship Historical Readers. 7 Vols. 9s. Longmans Green and Company, London, England.
4. Our Little Cousin Series. 25 Vols. 60c. each. L. C. Page and Co., Boston.

Get list of titles and select.

5. Peeps at many Lands and Cities. 50 Vols. 50c. each. The Macmillan Company of Canada, Ltd., Toronto.
   Get list of titles and select.

Group II.

1. Stories from Canadian History. Marquis. 25c. Copp Clark Company, Ltd., Toronto.
2. Brief Biographies. J. O. Miller. 35c. Copp Clark Company, Ltd., Toronto.
3. Stories of the Maple Land. C. A. Young. 25c. Copp Clark Company, Ltd., Toronto.
4. Heroines of Canadian History. W. S. Herrington. Cloth 30, paper 18c. Wm. Briggs, Toronto.
5. Ryerson Memorial Volume. J. G. Hodgins.
   A graphic sketch of the old log schoolhouse and its belongings, and the life of a pioneer teacher.

Group III.

1. Fifty Famous Stories. Baldwin. 35c. The American Book Company, New York.
2. Thirty More Famous Stories. Baldwin. 50c. The American Book Company, New York.
3. Book of Legends. Scudder. Riverside Literature Series 15c. Copp Clark Company, Ltd., Toronto.
4. Legends Every Child Should Know. Ed. H. W. Mabie. 90c. Doubleday, Page and Co., New York.

Group IV. Miscellaneous

1. Heroes Every Child Should Know. Ed. H. W. Mabie. 90c. Doubleday, Page and Co., New York.
2. Famous Men of Greece. 50c. The American Book Company, New York.
3. Famous Men of Rome. The American Book Company, New York.
4. Famous Men of the Middle Ages. 50c. The American Book Company, New York.
5. Famous Men of Modern Times. 50c. The American Book Company, New York.
6. Stories of Great Inventors. Macombe. 40c. Wm. Briggs, Toronto.
7. Calendar Stories. M. P. Boyle. 30c. McClelland and Goodchild, Toronto.
8. Ten Boys who lived on the road from long ago to now. Jane Andrews. 75c. Sch. ed. 50c. Ginn and Company, New York.
9. Seven Little Sisters who live on the round ball that floats in the air. Jane Andrews. 75c. Sch. ed. 50c. Ginn and Company, New York.
10. The Romance of Canadian History. Edgar. 75c. The Macmillan Company of Canada, Ltd., Toronto.
11. English Life 300 Years Ago. Trevelyan. 1s. Methuen and Company, London.

In Group I the first, and any of the others may be read. The first are very interesting and great favourites with children.

In Groups II and III one of each may be taken as they, to some extent, cover the same ground.

All of those in Group IV are useful, and may be added as opportunity permits.

APPENDIX

THE FIRST CHRISTMAS TREE

Did you ever hear the story of the first Christmas tree? This is the way it was told to me: Martin Luther was a good man who lived in Germany long ago. One Christmas Eve he was walking to his home. The night was cold and frosty with many stars in the sky. He thought he had never seen stars look so bright. When he got home he tried to tell his wife and children how pretty the stars were, but they didn't seem to understand. So Luther went out into his garden and cut a little evergreen tree. This he set up in the room and fastened tiny candles all over it, and when he had lighted them they shone like stars.

One of Luther's neighbors came in that night, and when she saw the tree she thought how one would please her children. Soon she had one in her house, too. And the idea spread from one house to another until there were Christmas trees all over Germany.

Queen Victoria of England was married to a German prince, and the German custom of a Christmas tree for the children was followed in the royal palace. Of course after the Queen had a tree other people must have one too. So the Christmas tree came to England.

The little French boys and girls have not had them so long. Not very many years ago there was a war between France and Germany. At Christmas time the German soldiers were in Paris. They felt sorry to be so far from their own little boys and girls on Christmas eve. But they knew how to have something to remind them of home. Every soldier who could got a little evergreen tree and put candles on it. The French saw them, and were so pleased that now, every year, they too have Christmas trees.

So many people from England, and from Germany, and from France have come to our country to live that, of course, we too have learned about Christmas trees. And that is why you and so many other little girls and boys have such pretty trees on Christmas eve.

THE ORIGIN OF THE EASTER BUNNY

Childish voices are asking why the rabbit is seen with the eggs and the chickens that fill the shop windows and show-cases at Easter. The legend that established the hare as a symbol of the Eastertide is not generally known. It is of German origin and runs as follows:

Many years ago, during a cruel war, the Duchess of Lindenburg with her two children and an old servant fled for safety to a little obscure village in the mountains. She found the people very poor, and one thing that surprised her much was that they used no eggs. She learned that they had never seen or heard of hens, and so when the old servant went to get tidings of his master and of the war he brought back with him some of these birds.

The simple village folk were greatly interested in the strange fowl, and when they saw the tiny yellow chickens breaking their way out of the eggs they were full of delight. But the Duchess was saddened by the thought that Easter was drawing near and that she had no gifts for the little mountain children. Then an idea came to her. The spring was beginning to colour the earth with leaves and

flowers, and she made bright dyes out of herbs and roots and coloured the eggs. Then the children were invited to visit the Duchess, and she told them stories of the glad Easter day, and afterwards bade each make a nest of moss among the bushes. When they had all enjoyed the little feast provided in their honour, they went back to the woods to look at their nests. Lo! in each were five coloured eggs.

"What a good hen it must have been to lay such beautiful eggs," said one child.

"It could not have been a hen," said another. "The eggs that the hens lay are white. It must have been the rabbit that jumped out of the tree when I made my nest."

And all the children agreed that it was the rabbit, and to this day the mystic Bunny is supposed to bring eggs and gifts at Easter to the little children of the "Fatherland," who have been loving and kind during the year.

THE STORY OF ST. VALENTINE

Once upon a time, there lived in a monastery across the sea a humble monk called Valentine. Every brother save himself seemed to have some special gift.

Now there was Brother Angelo, who was an artist, and painted such wonderful Madonnas that it seemed as if the holy mother must step down from the frame and bless her children.

Brother Vittorio had a wonderful voice, and on saints' days the monastery chapel would be crowded with visitors, who came from far and near just to listen to that wonderful voice as it soared up among the dim old arches.

Brother Anselmo was a doctor, and knew the virtues of all roots, herbs, and drugs, and was kept very busy going about among the sick, followed by their tearful, grateful blessing.

Brother Johannes was skilled in illuminating, and Valentine often watched the page grow under his clever hand. How beautiful would then be the gospel story in brightly-coloured letters, with dainty flowers, bright-winged butterflies, and downy, nestling birds about the borders!

Brother Paul was a great teacher in the monastery school, and even learned scholars came to consult him. Friar John ruled the affairs of the little monastery world with wisdom and prudence. Indeed, out of the whole number only Valentine seemed without special talent.

The poor man felt it keenly. He longed to do some great thing. "Why did not the good God give me a voice like Vittorio or a skilled hand like Angelo?" he would often inquire of himself bitterly. One day as he sat sadly musing on these things, a voice within him said clearly and earnestly: "Do the little things Valentine; there the blessing lies." "What are the little things?" asked Valentine, much perplexed. But no answer came to this question. Like every one else, Valentine had to find his work himself.

He had a little plot where he loved to work, and the other monks said that Valentine's pinks, lilies, and violets were larger and brighter than any raised in the whole monastery garden.

He used to gather bunches of his flowers and drop them into the chubby hands of children as they trotted to school under the gray monastery walls. Many a happy village bride wore his roses on her way to the altar. Scarcely a coffin was taken to the cemetery but Valentine's lilies or violets filled the silent hands.

He got to know the birthday of every child in the village, and was fond of hanging on the cottage door some little gift his loving hands had made. He could mend a child's broken windmill and carve quaint faces from walnut shells. He made beautiful crosses of silvery gray lichens, and pressed mosses and rosy weeds from the seashore. The same tender hands were ready to pick up a fallen baby, or carry the water bucket for some weary mother.

Everybody learned to love the good Brother Valentine. The children clung to his long, gray skirts, and the babies crept out on the streets to receive his pat on their shining hair. Even the cats and dogs rubbed against him, and the little birds fluttered near him unafraid.

St. Valentine grew old, loving and beloved, never dreaming that he had found his great thing. When the simple monk died the whole countryside mourned, and hundreds came to look for the last time on the quiet face in the rude coffin.

A great duke walked bare-headed after that coffin, and one of the most noted brothers of the church spoke the last words of blessing to the weeping people.

After his death, it was remembered how sweet had been his little gifts, and the villagers said: "Let us, too, give gifts to our friends on the good Valentine's birthday." So ever since has the pretty custom been carried out, and on St. Valentine's day we send our friends little tokens of remembrance to say we love them.

THE FIRST THANKSGIVING

It is nearly three hundred years since the first Thanksgiving Day. Though we have even more to be grateful for, I think there are not many of us who feel quite so thankful as the little handful of people who set apart the first Thanksgiving Day.

There were not very many of them, just one little village in a big forest land, and by the edge of a great ocean. Here, on the map, is where they lived. It is on the north-eastern shores of the United States and is called Plymouth. The people I am telling you about gave it that name when they came to it, nearly two years before they had their first Thanksgiving Day. It was the name of the last town they had seen in England. Here, on the map, is the English Plymouth, and you see what a long trip they had in their little vessel, called the Mayflower, to their new home.

You still wonder why they travelled so far to make new homes for themselves. It was because they wanted to worship God in their own way that they left England. They were not afraid of the long voyage and all its hardships; for they felt sure they were doing as God wished them to do. They arrived safely, too, and built their little village by the sea—the new Plymouth. One of the first buildings they put up was a little log church.

The first year was very hard for everybody. The winter was colder than any they had ever known in England, and their houses were small and poorly built. They could not get any letters or news from their friends in England for many months. Food was not scarce, for there was always plenty of game and fish. But it was such a change from their old way of living that many people became ill, and in the spring there were many graves. But the worst thing about the new land was the Indians. These English people were afraid of them—and with good reason, too, for they were very fierce and sometimes very cruel. They tried not to let the Indians know how few they were, and even planted grain above the graves in the churchyard so that the Indians could not count how many had died.

But one of the Indian chiefs was friendly to the English and kept the other tribes from making war on them, and the second summer they had a great harvest and everything was more comfortable. It was in that autumn, just after the grain was gathered, that the minister spoke to them one Sunday about having a Thanksgiving day. "It seemeth right," he said, "God hath granted us peace and plenty. He has blessed us with a dwelling-place of peace. He has held back the savage red man from bringing harm to us. Therefore let us appoint a day of Thanksgiving."

After that all the people, even the boys and girls, were busy getting ready. The men took their guns and fishing-rods and went into the forest, and brought home fowl, fish, and deer, and perhaps bear meat as well. The boys and girls gathered wild plums, and grapes, and corn, and brought in pumpkins from the gardens; and the women made pies, puddings, cakes, and bread, and baked the meat and corn. They had great piles of cakes, and rows and rows of pies, and loaves of bread and platters of meat, for they all expected company. You could not guess, I am sure, who was coming! They had sent word to the Indians near to come and spend Thanksgiving Day with them.

Do you suppose they came? Indeed they did. They came before breakfast and stayed until long after supper, and had a good time, and tasted everything the white women had cooked, and nodded their heads and said, "How" a great many times, to say it was good. Some of the little girls and boys were half afraid of them, but they need not have been: for that day the Indians felt very kindly toward the English.

Have pupils mention things they have to be thankful for

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